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A HISTORY OF INDIANA

BY

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SECRETARY INDIANA HISTORICAL SOCIETY

SUPPLEMENT TO
GORDY'S HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS

NEW YORK CHICAGO BOSTON

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HISTORY OF INDIANA

CHAPTER I

THE EARLIEST PERIOD

REFERENCES:[1] **Levering's** Historic Indiana; **Dunn's** Indiana; The Mission to the Ouabache, in Indiana Historical Society's publications, vol. III.

OUTSIDE READINGS: **Parkman's** Jesuits in North America, La Salle and the Discovery of the Great West, and Conspiracy of Pontiac.

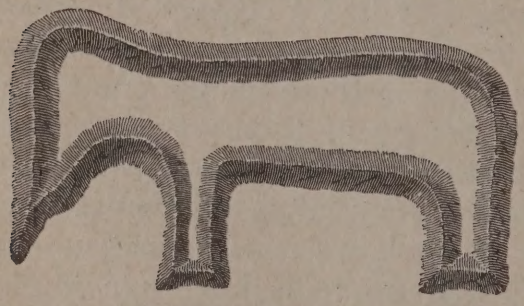
1. The Mound-Builders.—As Indiana is one of the States of the United States of America, its history is to a large extent only a part of the general history of the nation; but, as with all the other States, it has a local history that is peculiarly its own. One feature of this relates to the different peoples who have inhabited the territory included within its boundaries, although none of these peoples were inhabitants of Indiana only. The first people known to have lived here are called Mound-Builders because, unlike any who followed them, they had a custom of making the great mounds which are commonly known as Indian mounds. Nobody knows whence these people came, nor who they were, nor what became of them; but some of their characteristics can be told from the works they left.

Some of these mounds are very large, and must have required a vast amount of work for their construction, especially as these people had no tools but rude implements of stone, no machinery, no vehicles, and no beasts of burden. No animal of the horse kind was native to

[1] Every school library in Indiana should be supplied with *Readings in Indiana History* (issued by the State Teachers' Association) and the publications of the Indiana Historical Society.

this country, or was known here until brought from Europe. Some large mounds were made for tombs for two or three persons, like the pyramids of Egypt; and this proves that they must have had a strongly centralized government, in which one ruler could require the service of his subjects. None of the Indians of America had any such government, except the Toltecs, the Aztecs, the Peruvians, and some of the Pueblos. For this reason some scientists believe that the Mound-Builders were the ancestors of some of these races, and were driven out of this region by another people. Some mounds are evidently fortifications, which proves that the Mound-Builders were looking for attacks from enemies of some kind. There are a number of these in Indiana, indicating at some places a chain of forts. Some of these are of great size, such as "Fort Azatlan" in Sullivan County, the Old Stone Fort in Clark County, and one on the bank of White River, in Randolph County which covers about thirty acres.

In addition to the mounds, which are numerous, the stone implements left by the Mound-Builders furnish conclusive evidence that their population was large. About two-thirds of Indiana, in the central and southern parts, when Europeans first knew it, was covered by a dense forest that must have been centuries in growth. In the soil that was beneath this forest there are found everywhere thousands of stone arrow-heads, spear-heads, axes, and other implements of man's make. Only a dense population could have left such remains; and a dense population cannot subsist in a forest country. When the Mound-Builders were here the ground must have been clear, and these peo-



BIG ELEPHANT MOUND.
A remarkable example of the Mound-Builders' work.

ple must have lived chiefly by agriculture. For some unknown reason they disappeared from this region; and the Indians, who appear to have been the next occupants, had no traditions of the Mound-Builders, or of their works; yet many scientists believe the Indians to be descendants of the Mound-Builders.

2. **The Indians.**—When the Americans first came in contact with them, the Miami Indians claimed ownership of all of Indiana except the extreme northern part—including the valleys of the Kankakee and St. Joseph Rivers—which belonged to the Potawatomis. At the treaty of Greenville, in 1795, the Miami head chief, The Little Turtle, told General Wayne that their lands extended as far east as the Muskingum River. But their possession of this territory had not been continuous. The Iroquois, or Six Nations, of New York, obtained firearms from the French, English, and Dutch colonists long before the Western Indians; and, with this advantage of weapons, they exterminated or drove out all the Indian tribes of Ohio and Indiana, about the year 1620. For nearly a century Indiana was practically uninhabited. When the French Jesuit missionaries made their first acquaintance with Green Bay, before 1657, they found the Miamis located far to the west of them—some of them beyond the Mississippi River—and they reported in 1658 that the Iroquois "come to seek them even in these distant lands." This condition continued until after the Western tribes came under French influence and were supplied with firearms.

3. **The Coming of the French.**—The early French explorations of the Great Lakes, and the Western country were not by way of Lake Erie, on account of the hostility of the Iroquois,[1] but by way of the Ottawa River to Lake Huron. There was no exploration to the south until, in 1667, Robert Cavelier, Sieur de La Salle, made some explorations in western New York, and secured more

[1] See par. 81, p. 89.

friendly relations with the Iroquois. In 1669, he pushed farther south, across to the Allegheny, down which he descended to the Ohio, and followed the Ohio almost to its mouth. This was the first known visit of any white man to the soil of Indiana.

La Salle established a trading-post at Cadaracqui, where Kingston, Canada, now stands, and built up a large Indian trade. At the same time he was getting information about the Western country, and about the Mississippi River, which had been discovered by Joliet and Father Marquette in 1673. La Salle had built four small ships on Lake Ontario, which he used in his trade. In 1679 he built another above the Falls of Niagara, and with it sailed through Lake Erie, and on through Lakes Huron and Michigan to Green Bay. Here he left his ship, and went on in canoes to the mouth of the St. Joseph River. This he ascended to the site of South Bend, where he made the short portage to the Kankakee River and descended it to the Illinois, making his second visit to Indiana.

4. **The Influence of La Salle.**—For the next six years La Salle was the dominant factor in the Western country. He was a man of great resolution and intelligence, with large visions of the future. He had determined to open trade with the Western Indians, and to ship his furs by way of the Mississippi. In January, 1680, he reached the large village of the Illinois Indians near Peoria and, after establishing an alliance with them, began the construction of Fort Crèvecœur, some two miles below Peoria Lake. In a few weeks he was called to Quebec by business troubles, caused by his enemies, and when he returned in the following winter he found Fort Crèvecœur destroyed, and his men and his Indian allies scattered. The Iroquois had been aroused to hostility by his proposal to furnish firearms to their Western enemies, and had taken prompt action to prevent this danger.

But La Salle was not so easily beaten. He at once began forming a confederacy of the Western tribes to re-

sist the Iroquois, and by March, 1683, had completed a new fort, called Fort St. Louis, on an almost inaccessible bluff near Utica, Illinois, known as Starved Rock. About this he gathered the Western Indians in such large numbers as to guarantee safety from the Iroquois. Among these were the tribes that later lived in Indiana. And then a new peril arose. In October, 1682, Count Frontenac, La Salle's firm friend, was succeeded as governor of Canada by La Barre, who was La Salle's enemy, and who made him so much trouble that he was forced to go to France for redress. He was successful; and in 1685 La Barre was recalled, and Governor Denonville took his place. La Salle then started from France with an expedition to found a colony at the mouth of the Mississippi, but failed; and, in 1687, was murdered by one of his own men while attempting to return overland to Canada.

Meanwhile Governor Denonville had organized an expedition against the Iroquois, and in July, 1687, invaded the country of the Senecas with a force of two thousand soldiers, coureurs de bois, and Indians. The Senecas were defeated, and their villages and crops destroyed. Thereafter the Iroquois made no further trouble in the West, except one unsuccessful expedition in 1695. La Salle was the man who had brought about their loss of power.

5. **The Return of the Indians.**—After the death of La Salle the first strong French leader that appeared in the West was Lamothe Cadillac, an officer in the Indian service, who commanded at Mackinaw and other points. Both the French and the English were claiming the Ohio Valley by right of discovery, and, on July 19, 1701, the English strengthened their claim by taking a deed from the Iroquois for their "bever-hunting lands," which, by the description, included all of Ohio, all of Kentucky north of the Kentucky River, all of Indiana east of a line drawn from the mouth of the Kentucky to Chicago, all of the southern peninsula of Michigan, and all of Canada south

of the Ottawa River.[1] Both sides saw that the Detroit River was the key to the upper lakes in this contest, and both proposed to fortify there; but Lamothe Cadillac acted first, and in 1702 built a fort at the site of Detroit. He brought with him a number of the Miamis and other Indiana Indians, who settled about his fort.

The French now had fairly peaceable possession in the West, but there is no record of any movement of the Indians into Indiana until after the siege of Detroit, in 1712, when the Kickapoos and Mascoutins undertook to destroy the French garrison, but were defeated with great slaughter by the French and the other Indians. The Miamis and others then began moving south, and by 1718 had taken locations in which the Americans found them. The most easterly village of the Miamis was at the site of Fort Wayne. On the Wabash they had five principal villages, one at "the Forks of the Wabash," near Huntington; one at Lagro, opposite the mouth of the Salominee; one at the site of Logansport; one opposite Post Ouiatanon, at the mouth of Wea Creek; and one at the Vermillion River. The last named was the village of the Piankeshaws, who were a sub-tribe of the Miamis, speaking the same language. During the French period all of these Indians on the Wabash were usually called Ouiatanons, or sometimes Ouabaches.[2] It should be kept in mind that during the French régime the Ouabache was considered the main stream, *i. e.*, they said that the Ohio emptied into the Ouabache, and the Ouabache into the Mississippi. The Delawares did not come into Indiana until about 1750, when the Miamis granted them lands on the West Fork of White River. Their principal villages were at Muncie, Anderson, and Strawtown, a few miles above Noblesville.

[1] The deed is set out in N. Y. Colonial Documents, vol. IV, p. 908. See also vol. VII, p. 572.

[2] There is no "w" in the French alphabet, and the sound is represented by "ou," hence the English form of these words is We-ah-tah-non and Wabash.

6. The Sieurs de Vincennes.—At the time of the return of the Miamis to Indiana the Frenchman who was most influential with them was the Sieur de Vincennes. The Kings of France had thought it wise to establish an inferior order of nobility in Canada, and had granted estates, or fiefs, to a number of influential Canadians. These estates were called seigniories. Among them was the Seigniory of Vincennes, which was granted to François Bissot, in 1672. It is located on the south bank of the St. Lawrence River, just below Quebec, opposite the Isle of Orleans. After the death of François Bissot, his son, Jean Baptiste Bissot became Sieur de Vincennes. He was an officer in the Canadian troops, and in 1705 was stationed with the Miamis, but was recalled on charges of engaging in contraband trade. The charges were, perhaps, unfounded, for in 1712 he was again sent to the Miamis, and remained with them until 1719, when he died at their village at the site of Fort Wayne. It is probable that a small fort was erected by the French while he was there.

No official record has been found in Canada showing who succeeded Jean Baptiste Bissot; but in all records and official correspondence, from 1722 to 1736, there appears a Sieur de Vincennes. According to Judge Law, the historian of Vincennes, he signed his name "Francois Morgan de Vincenne." The early Canadians had little education, and the fact that he misspelled his title makes it certain that he misspelled his name, for Morgan is not a French name. The French name most like it is Margane. It is known that no one named Bissot succeeded; and as Jean Baptiste Bissot had an older sister, Louise Bissot, who married Seraphin Margane in 1668, it is probable that the new Sieur de Vincennes was her son or grandson. He was even more popular with the Miamis than his uncle Bissot, and as early as 1724 was stationed at Post Ouiatanon, which was probably established in 1720.

7. The Influence of Louisiana.—The French possessions in America were divided into the Provinces of Canada and Louisiana. The line between them was not very definite, but it crossed the Wabash about the site of Terre Haute; and therefore all the Indiana Indians were within Canada. Louisiana had little or no influence on Indiana until after 1720; but the French settlements in Illinois, on the Mississippi River, were included in Louisiana. After the power of the Iroquois was broken, the English made alliances with the southern Indians; and the French settlements on the upper Mississippi were endangered by incursions of these tribes down the Tennessee, Cumberland, Kentucky, and Ohio Rivers.

In 1718 Governor Bienville of Louisiana sent M. de Boisbriant up the Mississippi with one hundred men to build a fort for the protection of the upper settlements. He selected a point about sixteen miles above Kaskaskia, and in 1720 completed a substantial stone fortress, which was named Fort Chartres, and which thereafter was the seat of government of all of Louisiana north of the Ohio River. In this same year, 1720, Kaskaskia was made a parish, and Father De Beaubois was stationed there as parish priest. He was a very zealous churchman, and desired to have some of the Indiana Indians brought within the limits of Louisiana, and a mission established for them. The governor of Louisiana also wanted the Indians for the protection of the upper settlements; and, in 1725, Father De Beaubois was sent to France with a party of six Indians to urge this change.

8. The Founding of Post Vincennes.—Father De Beaubois and his Indians were received at the French court with as much ceremony as the English court had shown in the reception of Pocahontas, and the court papers were full of the story of their entertainment. The King granted all that was asked. It was ordered that Sieur de Vincennes should bring part of his Indians to the mouth of the Wabash (they called it the mouth of the Ohio) and

establish a post there; and Father D'Outreleau was sent out as "missionary to the Ouabache," on the same ship that brought over the nuns who established the famous Ursuline convent at New Orleans. But the governor of Canada objected to the removal of Sieur de Vincennes, and so the project was delayed until on October 15, 1730, the governor of Canada wrote to the French minister: "The Ouiatanons have been led away into the jurisdiction of Louisiana by the Sieur de Vincennes."

The Indians who accompanied Sieur de Vincennes were a band of Piankeshaws from the Vermillion River; but they were unwilling to go to the mouth of the Wabash, because at that point they would be too much exposed to their southern enemies, especially the Chickasaws, with whom they were then at war. Therefore, the party stopped where the city of Vincennes now stands, and began the post at that point. On March 7, 1733, Sieur de Vincennes wrote to the governor: "You have done me the honor to ask me to send you a statement of the works finished and to be constructed. There is only a fort and two houses in it, and there should at once be built a guard-room, with barracks for lodging the soldiers. It is not possible to remain in this place with so few troops. It will need thirty men with an officer. I am more embarrassed than ever in this place by the war with the Chickasaws, who have come here twice since spring."

The war with the Chickasaws dragged on until 1736, when Governor Bienville of Louisiana determined to invade the Chickasaw country. The upper settlements were called on for aid, and Vincennes with his lieutenant, St. Ange, a few soldiers, and some Indians, joined Commandant D'Artaguiette of Fort Chartres in the expedition down the river Mississippi. They missed the troops from New Orleans, and decided to attack alone, but, on March 25, they fell into an ambush and were defeated with great slaughter. Vincennes and St. Ange fell in the

battle. D'Artaguiette and fifteen others were captured and burned at the stake.

9. The French Settlers.—After the death of Sieur de Vincennes, Louis St. Ange, a younger brother of the St. Ange[1] who was killed in the battle with the Chickasaws, was made commandant at Post Vincennes, and remained there from 1736 to 1764, when the country was surrendered to the British. There were only three small settlements of white people in Indiana in the French period. In 1769 there were sixty-six families at Post Vincennes, twelve at Post Ouiatanon, and nine at Fort Miamis—at the site of Fort Wayne. At Post Ouiatanon and Fort Miamis the residents were chiefly engaged in the fur trade. At Vincennes there was more agriculture. The Vincennes people had a large common field, fenced in, in which they kept their cattle. Their chief farm crops were corn and wheat; but they had very good gardens and fruit-trees.

Their farming was rude, but the soil was rich. They used wooden ploughs drawn by oxen, although they had horses. Their only vehicles were two-wheeled carts. They raised tobacco for their own use; and made wine of wild grapes, and cider from the apples they raised. They made their own harness from rawhides. They had no schools until after the Americans took possession. In religion they were Roman Catholics, but there was only one church in Indiana in this period. The church records of Vincennes begin in 1749, with Father Meurin as local priest. Before that time there were occasional visits to the Indiana posts by priests from the Illinois settlements. The French settlers were a simple, kindly people, not very industrious or thrifty from the American standpoint, but honest and good-hearted.

[1] Their family name was Groston, but they were all known by their father's nickname, St. Ange.

CHAPTER II

THE PERIOD OF ENGLISH DOMINION

REFERENCES: **Dillon's** Indiana, chapters 9–11; French Settlements on the Wabash, in Indiana Historical Society's Publications, vol. II; **English's** Conquest of the Northwest; **Dunn's** Indiana.

OUTSIDE READINGS: **Parkman's** Conspiracy of Pontiac; **Thompson's** Alice of Old Vincennes; **Roosevelt's** Winning of the West; **Churchill's** The Crossing.

10. The Coming of the English.—The wars between the French and the British in America were all fought far to the east of Indiana, and had little effect on the Indiana settlements except as men went from them to join in the fighting. The last of these wars began in 1754, in the contest for the Ohio Valley; but even this did not directly affect Indiana until after the capture of Montreal in 1760, when Major Robert Rogers was sent to take possession of the posts in western Canada. He took possession of Detroit on November 29, 1760; and soon after sent detachments which took possession of Fort Miamis and Post Ouiatanon; but Post Vincennes, being outside of Canada, was not disturbed until after the treaty of Paris, on February 10, 1763, by which France ceded the portion of the Mississippi Valley east of the Mississippi River to England, and that west of the river to Spain.

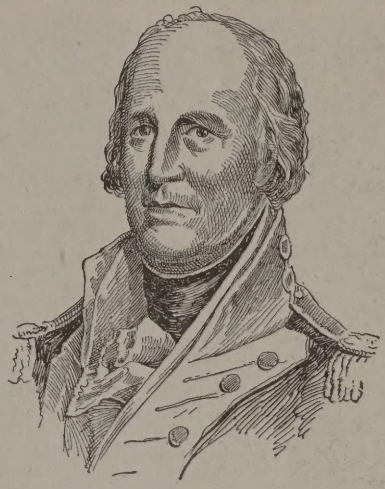
11. Pontiac's Conspiracy.—By that time a new obstacle had arisen. Pontiac, an able Ottawa chief, formed a coalition of the Western Indians to drive out the English, and in May, 1763, they captured most of the British posts in the West, including Fort Miamis and Post Ouiatanon. They were unable, however, to capture Detroit or Fort Pitt—where Pittsburg now stands. For a year

and a half they harassed the frontiers of the English settlements, but they did not interfere with the French settlements in the Ohio Valley, of which the British had not taken possession. The efforts of the British to reach the Wabash posts were unavailing until 1765, when Colonel George Croghan, who was sent out to attempt to adjust affairs, was taken prisoner by the Indians and carried up the Wabash. At Post Ouiatanon he met Pontiac, who there agreed to make peace with the English, which he did at Detroit, soon after.

12. **British Colonial Policy.**—The British Government at first decided that white people should be kept out of the Indian country, and, in April, 1772, General Gage, commander-in-chief in America, ordered the settlers on the Wabash to remove. The people of Vincennes protested, claiming legal titles to their lands; and General Gage required them to furnish proofs of their titles. Before this question was settled the British Parliament, in 1774, adopted a more liberal policy, granting to all the French settlers full religious liberty and the use of their ancient laws and customs, as well as the right to remain where they were located. Soon after this several large land companies were formed, which undertook to make private purchases of land from the Indians. Among these were the Illinois Land Company and the Wabash Land Company, to which the Indians conveyed large tracts of land in Illinois and Indiana. These titles were all rejected later by the United States Government.

13. **Indian Troubles Begin.**—In 1774 the people on the frontiers of Virginia and Pennsylvania became involved in hostilities with the Indians, and the bad feeling then created resulted in the Indians joining with the British when the Revolutionary War commenced. Their warfare was especially hard on the people who were moving into Kentucky, and who were in continual danger from war-parties. It was learned that the British officers at Detroit and in the Illinois and Wabash settlements

were inciting the Indians to make war on the American frontier settlers, and furnishing them with guns and ammunition. George Rogers Clark, a young Virginian who had taken an active interest in Kentucky, formed the idea of capturing these old French settlements, and later taking Detroit. He submitted his plans to the Virginia authorities, who realized that if this could be accomplished it would be an important advantage in the war with Great Britain, and accordingly authorized Clark's undertaking.



GEORGE ROGERS CLARK.

14. George Rogers Clark's Expedition.—With instructions and letters from Governor Patrick Henry of Virginia, Clark went to Pittsburg in January, 1778, and began recruiting men there, as well as sending officers to Tennessee and Kentucky for the same purpose; it being announced that the troops were being raised for the defence of Kentucky. They were not ready to start down the Ohio River until May, and near the last of that month they reached the Falls of the Ohio. Here they camped on an island known as Corn Island, which has since washed away; and here Clark first told his men of their real destination. This caused some of the men to desert, and some of the expected companies had not arrived; but Clark started on with only 175 men, on June 24, and went down the Ohio to old Fort Massac—an abandoned French post built by Colonel Massac in 1758, on the north side of the Ohio, eight miles below the mouth of the Tennessee.

From this point Clark marched overland to Kaskaskia, which he took by surprise on the evening of July 4, without any resistance. He disarmed all the settlers,

who were in much terror, as they had been told that the Americans were very barbarous and cruel. The next day they assembled in the village church, led by their priest, Father Gibault, and humbly petitioned General Clark to spare their lives. He assured them that the

CLARK'S SURPRISE AT KASKASKIA.

Americans were not savages, as they had been told; that France and America had just made a treaty of peace and alliance; that they were free to leave the country if they wished; but that if they desired to remain as Americans they would be protected in their property rights, and have full religious liberty. The French settlers were now filled with joy, and at once took the oath of allegiance and became American citizens. They also sent messengers to the neighboring towns, and their people likewise joined the Americans.

15. **Occupation of Vincennes.**—Clark now turned his attention to Post Vincennes. When St. Ange left Post

Vincennes, in 1764, he made Captain Richardville commandant. He died in 1767, and was succeeded by Lieutenant Chapard, who died in the following year. Ensign Jean Baptiste Racine, commonly known by his nickname, Ste. Marie, then became commandant, and continued until May, 1777, when Lieutenant-Governor Abbott came from Canada and took command. Clark consulted with Father Gibault, and learned from him that Abbott had gone to Canada on business, and that the only troops at Post Vincennes were French militia. Father Gibault volunteered to go to Vincennes and win them over to the American cause; and on July 14, started on his mission, with Doctor Lafonte of Kaskaskia and several others. Two weeks later they returned with the news that the Vincennes people had all taken the oath of allegiance to America. Captain Leonard Helm was sent over to take command of Post Vincennes, and was made Indian agent for the Wabash. A number of Clark's troops now returned home; and the remainder of the year was largely occupied in making treaties with the Indians, many of whom followed their French friends in joining the Americans.

When Lieutenant-Governor Hamilton learned at Detroit of Clark's successes he began preparations to reconquer the region taken. On October 7, 1778, he left Detroit with 177 white troops, and gathered up Indians on the way until he had over 300 of them. He came down the Wabash, reaching Vincennes on December 16; and on the next day, as his French militia had all left him, Captain Helm surrendered the fort. Hamilton sent out parties of Indians to attack the American settlements, and over half of his white troops returned to Detroit, from which place Hamilton expected to receive reinforcements in the spring, when he proposed to march against the Illinois settlements. On January 27, 1779, Colonel Francis Vigo arrived from Vincennes, and informed Clark that Hamilton had only 80 men with him; and Clark decided to attack him at once.

16. **The March to Vincennes.**—General Clark first prepared a sort of flat-boat, which he called *The Willing*, on which he placed two four-pound cannon and four swivels,[1] and sent it with 40 men down the Mississippi to come up the Ohio to the Wabash. He then gathered, with French recruits, 177 men, and on February 7, started on his march. There was no great difficulty until he reached the Embarras River on the 17th, when they found the Wabash and its tributaries at high water, and all the lowlands flooded. They marched down the Embarras to its mouth, ten miles below Vincennes, and began preparing to cross the Wabash by making dugout canoes. They were now so near Vincennes that they could hear the morning and evening guns of the fort, and great care was needed to prevent discovery. They were almost out of food. On the 20th, they had the good fortune to capture a small boat with five Frenchmen from Vincennes, who told them that their presence was not suspected; and on the same evening one of the hunters brought in a deer, which furnished a welcome meal.

It rained all of the next day, but Clark ferried his men across the Wabash in the little canoes, and started on his hard march through the flooded bottom-lands on the Indiana side. They waded three miles through the chilly waters, and camped on a little hill for the night. On the 22d they went forward again, hungry, wet, and cold; but the unflinching courage of Clark and a few others, especially "a little antic drummer boy," who amused them by his pranks and jokes, served to keep up their spirits. They camped that night on another little hill, and the weather turned colder, making ice half an inch thick at the edge of the water. Their hardest task was now before them, for they had to cross Horse Shoe Plain, four miles wide, of which the floods had made a shallow lake. Clark led the way, breaking the ice; and the canoes helped the weaker

[1] A swivel was a small cannon mounted on a pivot, so that it could be pointed in any direction.

men. After a desperate struggle, with much suffering, they got across; and they had the good fortune to capture a canoe, paddled by some Indian squaws, in which was a large piece of buffalo meat, some corn, tallow, and kettles. They built fires and made broth of the captured food, and in a little while they were dry, warm, and in good spirits. There was now only ground between them and the town, and a Frenchman, whom they captured, told them that there was still no suspicion of danger at the fort.

17. **Capture of the Fort.**—By this prisoner Clark sent word to the French people in the town that he was about to attack, and that those who wished to help the British must go into the fort, while others must remain in their houses. At dusk his men moved forward in silence, and at seven o'clock entered the town; part of them were sent to guard against outside relief, and the rest attacked the fort. They had only their rifles, and the British had three cannons and some swivels. At one o'clock the moon set, and in the darkness of the morning Clark made an intrenchment within rifle-shot of the fort. From this his men fired through the port-holes of the fort, killing the gunners, and preventing the use of the cannons. At nine o'clock on the morning of the 24th Clark demanded the surrender of the fort, and Hamilton proposed instead a truce of three days, which Clark at once refused, and resumed firing. About this time six of Hamilton's Indians, who had been captured, were brought in. Clark had them tomahawked and thrown into the river in sight of the fort, to show the Indians that Hamilton could not protect them.

This also terrified some of the men in the fort, and in the afternoon Hamilton sent a flag of truce, and asked a conference. Clark met him in the village church, and after some altercation it was agreed that the seventy-nine men in the fort should surrender as prisoners of war. Twenty-seven of them, including Hamilton, were sent to Virginia, and the rest were released on parole. Immedi-

ately after taking the fort Clark sent Captain Helm up the Wabash with 50 men to intercept a large party from Detroit who were bringing supplies to Vincennes. They were completely successful, and the supplies of all kinds that were captured were valued at $50,000. A large part of the spoil was divided among the men, in payment for their services.

18. Closing Years of the Revolution.—From this time forward the Americans held southern Indiana, and settlers rapidly poured into Kentucky. The fighting with the Indians was chiefly north of the Ohio, but with occasional invasions south of the river. In June, 1779, Colonel John Bowman with 300 men attacked an Indian town on the Miami River, but was defeated. In the spring of 1780 Colonel Byrd, of Detroit, invaded Kentucky with a force of soldiers and Indians, and destroyed Martin's and Ruddle's stations. In August, 1780, General Clark marched against the Indians on the Miami River with 1,000 men, and destroyed the Piqua and Chillicothe towns. Later in the year Colonel La Balme, a French officer, who came over with La Fayette, led a force of 60 men on an expedition in which he expected to get possession of Detroit by winning over the French, as Clark had done. They reached Kekionga, at the site of Fort Wayne, captured and plundered the stores there, and fell back to the Aboite River, where they were surprised and destroyed by a force of Indians under The Little Turtle.

In 1781 Clark made preparations for an expedition against Detroit. He was to be joined at the Falls of the Ohio by Colonel Archibald Lochry, with 100 men from Pennsylvania; but as Lochry was coming down the Ohio he fell into an ambush, and his force was destroyed at the mouth of the stream that bears his name.[1] Clark again prepared to attack Detroit in 1782, but was prevented, and instead, destroyed the Indian villages and

[1] The dividing line between Ohio and Dearborn Counties, Indiana—commonly written Loughery Creek.

trading posts on the Miami. In the winter of 1782 the United States and Great Britain agreed on a cessation of hostilities, and there was little trouble on the frontiers for the next three years. A treaty of peace was concluded at Paris on September 3, 1783, by which Great Britain relinquished all the lands south of the centre of the Great Lakes and east of the Mississippi. But at the convention the British delegates insisted that the Americans should leave the lands north of the Ohio for the Indians, and as the American commissioners would not consent, this subject was not mentioned in the treaty. In consequence the British retained their post at Detroit, and incited the Indians to resist the advance of the Americans north of the Ohio. This matter was not finally settled until the treaty of November, 1794, and the defeat of the Indians by General Wayne in the same year. Until that time northern Indiana was actually held by the British and their Indian allies.

19. Government by Virginia.—But southern Indiana was American, held by Clark and the frontier settlers. In October, 1778, Virginia adopted a law organizing all of the territory northwest of the Ohio River as Illinois County, and authorizing the governor to appoint a "county lieutenant, or commandant-in-chief," who was to be the head of the civil government, with power to appoint militia officers. This law preserved to the French settlers their ancient laws and customs, except that they were to elect such officers as were needed. Governor Henry appointed Colonel John Todd county lieutenant, and he arrived at Kaskaskia in May, 1779.

Soon afterward he called an election of civil officers at Vincennes, the first election ever held in Indiana. The people elected a court of nine members, a clerk, and a sheriff. P. Legras, the first judge of the court, was also appointed lieutenant-colonel of the militia of Vincennes. The French settlers considered him as having the same powers as their former commandants, and he and the

court did whatever they considered proper for the next nine years. They assumed the power of making land grants, and exercised it most liberally, making large grants to themselves as well as to others, and making much trouble for innocent purchasers later on.

CHAPTER III

THE TERRITORIAL GOVERNMENTS

REFERENCES: **Dillon's** Indiana; **Dunn's** Indiana; **Smith's** St. Clair Papers; **Webster's** William Henry Harrison's Administration, in Indiana Historical Society's Publications, vol. IV; **Howe's** Laws and Courts of the Northwest and Indiana Territories, in Indiana Historical Society's Publications, vol. II; Executive Journal of Indiana Territory, in Indiana Historical Society's Publications, vol. III.

OUTSIDE READING: Readings in Indiana History (State Teachers' Association); **Dunn's** True Indian Stories; **Dawson's** Life of Harrison.

20. The Ordinance of 1787.—Congress took four years to form a government for the territory northwest of the Ohio River. The chief conflict of opinion was about the disposition of the public lands, and conflicting opinions were not brought into harmony until harmony had been reached as to a Constitution for the United States. Both Congress and the Constitutional Convention sat at Philadelphia, and their members were in close touch with each other. The Ordinance was passed on July 13; and the Constitution was signed by the delegates to the convention on September 27. The Ordinance has been called the constitution of American Territories. In addition to providing the form of government, it had six "articles of compact" which were declared unalterable; the first guaranteeing religious liberty; the second civil liberty; the third education and the protection of the Indians; the fourth securing the rights of the United States and the common use of navigable streams; the fifth providing for not less than three, not more than five, States to be formed from the territory; the sixth prohibiting slavery in the territory.

The Ordinance provided for two stages of government. In the first grade a governor, a secretary, and three judges,

appointed by Congress (later by the President), were in control. They acted jointly as a legislature, but were authorized only to adopt laws from the older States, instead of making new ones. Minor officers were appointed by the governor. After the Territory had 5,000 voters, it passed to the second grade, and the people elected representatives to a legislature. These representatives were to select ten names, from which five were chosen by Congress (later by the President), to form a Council, or upper house of the legislature. The Council and House of Representatives, jointly, elected a representative to Congress, who had the privilege of speaking, but not of voting. These provisions continued until 1809, when councillors and representatives in Congress were made elective by the people. Nobody could hold office or vote unless he was a landowner.

21. Government at Vincennes.—On July 19, 1787, Colonel Josiah Harmar arrived at Vincennes, with a small force of soldiers, to take possession, by order of General Clark. He abolished the court, which had been controlling affairs, and appointed Major John F. Hamtramck commandant. Harmar left in October, and, as no civil government was organized, Hamtramck was in supreme control for three years. He was strict, but wise and just, and made a great improvement in local conditions. One of his first acts was to prohibit the sale of intoxicating liquors to the Indians. He also protected the settlers from speculators by prohibiting the sale of lands or goods without his consent. This seems like strange American government in Indiana, but there was no other government within the bounds of Indiana until the summer of 1790, and it was much better than the lack of proper government that had continued at Vincennes for a number of years. There was suffering at Vincennes during these three years, because the crops were destroyed by floods, but Major Hamtramck bought corn at public expense, and fed the people. When he left, in 1790, the people thanked him warmly for his good services.

22. **The Northwest Territory.**—In connection with the Ordinance of 1787, a sale of nearly 5,000,000 acres of land was made to the Ohio Company, which was composed largely of New England people. In April, 1788, a party of them, led by General Rufus Putnam, began a settlement at Marietta, Ohio, which was made the capital of the vast Northwest Territory, extending from Pennsylvania to the Mississippi, and from the Great Lakes to the Ohio. Governor Arthur St. Clair arrived in July, with Judges Parsons, Varnum, and Symmes. Winthrop Sargent was secretary. On July 27, Governor St. Clair organized Washington County, which included all of Ohio east of the Scioto. No other counties were organized until 1790. On June 20, 1790, Knox County was organized, including all of Indiana and lower Michigan, and the eastern part of Illinois. In 1798 the Northwest Territory advanced to the second grade. The councillor selected for Knox County was Henry Vanderburgh, and the representative Colonel John Small. In the same year William Henry Harrison was made secretary of the Northwest Territory in place of Winthrop Sargent.

WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON.

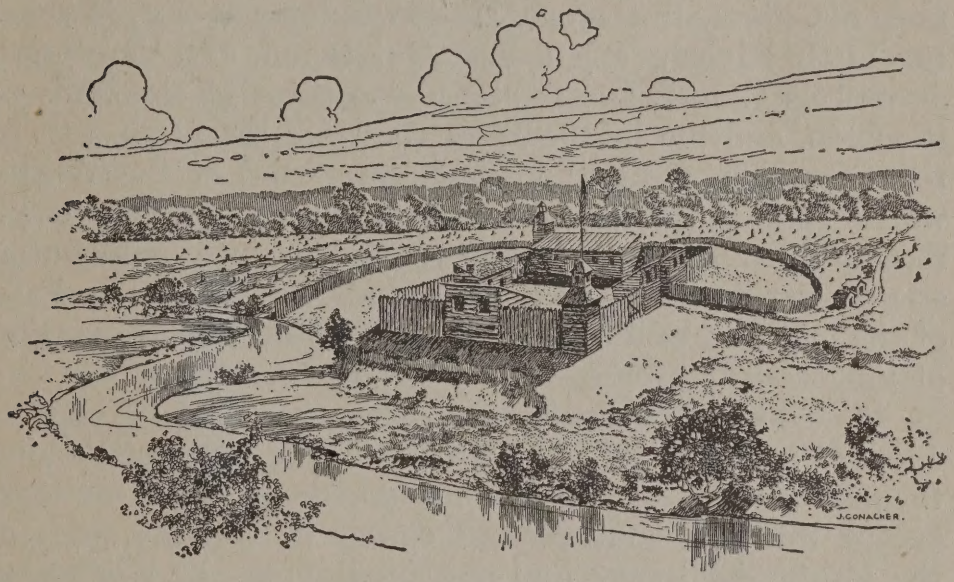
23. **Indian Wars.**—In 1785 the Indians held a great council at Post Ouiatanon, and determined to stop the advance of the Americans north of the Ohio River. In 1786 Clark marched against them with 1,500 militia, but when he reached the Vermillion River his men had become so mutinous that he marched back to Vincennes and disbanded them. The next two years were passed in attempts to make treaties, and the Indians did little damage until 1789, when they stole many horses and attacked unprotected settlers. In September, 1790, General Harmar marched against them and destroyed the towns and crops on the Maumee, and about the site of Fort Wayne; but

detachments of his soldiers were defeated by the Indians under The Little Turtle. At the same time Major Hamtramck marched up the Wabash with 400 men, and destroyed the towns on the Vermillion River, but the Indians kept out of his reach. In 1791 the Indians became very active in their hostilities; and in May General Scott marched against them with 750 Kentucky militia. He destroyed the towns about Post Ouiatanon, at the mouth of Eel River, and at the mouth of the Tippecanoe. At the last named place—commonly called Kethtippecanunk—there were found a number of French traders and seventy log houses. Scott returned to Louisville with 58 prisoners, mostly women and children, having killed a number of Indians and destroyed much property without the loss of a man.

In the summer of 1791 Governor St. Clair raised a force to attack the Indians, and in September he started from Fort Washington (Cincinnati) with 2,000 men. They moved north twenty-five miles and built Fort Hamilton, then forty-two miles farther, and built Fort Jefferson. On November 3 they came to the place where Fort Recovery was afterward built, and went into camp. Early the next morning they were attacked by 1,400 Indians, under The Little Turtle, and suffered a terrible defeat. St. Clair lost 913 men, killed and wounded, together with all his artillery, camp equipage, and supplies. This defeat was a terrible blow to the frontiers, for the Indians followed it with attacks on the unprotected settlers everywhere. It was realized that more adequate measures must be taken. Congress provided for raising an army of 5,000 men, and President Washington appointed General Anthony Wayne to command it.

24. Wayne Defeats the Indians.—Wayne went to Pittsburg in June, 1792, and began recruiting his army. He took every step with great care, and did not advance toward the Indian country until October, 1793, when he built Fort Greenville, six miles north of Fort Jefferson.

In December he sent out a force which built Fort Recovery on the field of St. Clair's defeat. At these forts he wintered, and remained until July 28, when, having been joined by General Scott with 1,600 mounted men from Kentucky, he marched on the enemy. On August 8 he reached the



FORT WAYNE IN 1795.

Maumee at the mouth of the Auglaize, and there erected Fort Defiance. A week later he moved down the Maumee, and on the 20th reached a point called the "Fallen Timbers," where a forest had been blown down by a tornado. Here the Indians were lying in ambush. Wayne attacked and drove them out, pursuing them to Fort Miamis—a post which the British had built on the Maumee. After destroying everything in that vicinity, the army marched up the Maumee, destroying the Indian villages and immense corn fields that lined the stream. On September 14 they marched to Kekionga, destroyed the Indian property there, and built a fort opposite the Indian town. Major Hamtramck, who was left in command, named it Fort Wayne.

The Indians were now thoroughly disheartened, and

realized that their British friends could not protect them. After spending the winter in hunger, they obeyed Wayne's orders for them to meet him at Fort Greenville, and make a treaty of peace. Eleven hundred and thirty warriors, representing nine tribes, assembled there, and, on August 3, signed a treaty dictated by Wayne. They surrendered most of Ohio, with tracts of land in Indiana at Fort Wayne, the Little River portage, Post Ouiatanon, and Vincennes, as well as Clark's Grant of 150,000 acres at the Falls of the Ohio, and the southeastern corner of the State, east of the Greenville treaty line, including most of the Whitewater Valley.[1] With peace assured, settlers now came rapidly into the ceded lands, soon forming substantial settlements in the Whitewater Valley and at the Falls of the Ohio, as well as adding to the American population of Vincennes.

25. Indiana Territory.—On May 3, 1800, Congress adopted a law dividing Northwest Territory, and making the part of it west of the west line of Ohio Indiana Territory, except that the southeastern corner of Indiana, east of the Greenville treaty line remained a part of Northwest Territory until Ohio became a State in 1802. Vincennes was made the capital of Indiana Territory. William Henry Harrison was appointed governor, John Gibson, secretary, and William Clarke, Henry Vanderburgh, and John Griffin judges. Secretary John Gibson began the government on July 4, 1800, and Governor Harrison and the judges did not arrive until the next year. Indiana Territory included all of the States of Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin, and part of Minnesota, but the entire white population in 1800 was only 5,641. Of this population about 2,500 were in what is now Indiana. There were 929 in Clark's Grant, and most of the remainder were on the Wabash about Vincennes. Of this population 163 were reported free negroes by the

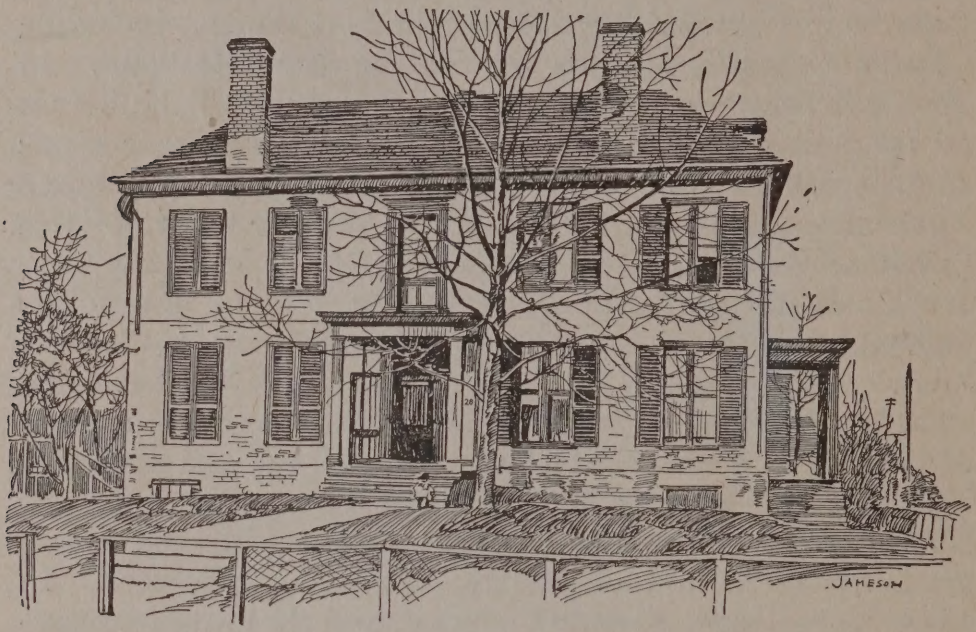
[1] The Greenville treaty line is preserved in the west line of Dearborn County. On account of the triangular shape of the tract it was sometimes called The Gore.

census, and 135 slaves, but the slaves were probably the greater number.

The only counties in this vast region that were organized under the Northwest Territory were Knox County, as mentioned, and Randolph and St. Clair Counties, which included the Illinois settlements. On February 3, 1801, Governor Harrison organized Clark County, including Clark's Grant and much more of southern Indiana. In 1803 Michigan was made Wayne County, and the corner of Indiana east of the Greenville treaty line was made Dearborn County. In 1803 the United States purchased Louisiana, and Congress made the northern part of this purchase the District of Louisiana, and ordered the governor and judges of Indiana Territory to make laws for it, although it was not made a part of Indiana. In 1805 the District of Louisiana was made a separate Territory, and so was Michigan. In 1809 Illinois and the region north of it was made a separate Territory, and Indiana Territory was left with practically the same boundaries that the State now has. Indiana Territory advanced to the second grade in 1805, and elected a legislature thereafter. In 1813 the capital was made Corydon, and the seat of government was at that place after May 1 of that year.

26. **The Slavery Contest.**—Although there were only 135 slaves reported in Indiana by the census of 1800, and probably only about 175 in fact, the question of slavery was the chief cause of political controversy in the Territory. Negro slavery had been admitted to the French settlements by the French kings, and there were a number of Indian slaves, commonly called "panis" (Pawnees) who had been bought from Indians who had captured them. Governor St. Clair held that the French settlers were entitled to hold their slaves, under the treaty provisions guaranteeing them their property and their ancient laws and customs; and this rule was followed in Indiana Territory also. Under the Northwest Territory the Illinois people had petitioned Congress to remove the

prohibition of slavery from the Ordinance, but Congress refused. In 1802 Governor Harrison called a convention at Vincennes to consider the question, and the convention petitioned Congress to admit slavery. The chief reason given for asking this was that the country was covered



HARRISON MANSION, VINCENNES.

by a heavy forest, and could not be cleared except by slave labor. Meanwhile, settlers were coming into Clark's Grant and the Whitewater Valley who were opposed to slavery, and a number of petitions both for and against slavery were sent to Congress, which steadily refused to change the Ordinance.

The governor and judges, in 1803, and the Territorial Legislature, in 1805, passed what were called indenture laws, under which a man could bring his slaves into the Territory, and they could bind themselves as "servants" for a term of years, which was practically the same as slavery. This only increased the opposition of the free-soil people. In 1808 the Territorial Legislature reported

against slavery; and in 1809, after Illinois had been made a separate Territory, Jonathan Jennings became a candidate for Congress as an opponent of slavery and was elected. From that time forward the antislavery people were in the majority in Indiana Territory, and when the State was admitted they controlled the constitutional convention, and made it a free State. They also elected Jonathan Jennings its first governor.

TECUMTHA.

27. **Indian Treaties and Tecumtha.** —In accordance with instructions from Washington, Governor Harrison proceeded to acquire titles to unoccupied Indian lands as rapidly as convenient. Most of these treaties were made with a few chiefs, who were treated as representatives of their tribes. In 1809 two important cessions of Indian lands were made. One was of the southwestern part of Indiana, lying south of a line drawn southeasterly from the mouth of Big Raccoon Creek to White River, and commonly known as "the ten-o'clock line." The other was a tract twelve miles wide along the west side of the Greenville treaty line, and was commonly known as "the twelve-mile purchase." These cessions brought to a climax the troubles with the Indians, led by the Shawnee chief Tecumtha, who objected to the sale of Indian lands to the whites.

By the treaty of Fort Greenville, the Ohio Indians, who were chiefly Shawnees and Delawares, were thrown back into Indiana, but without having any lands assigned to them. They adopted the theory that all of the lands in Indiana belonged to all of the Indians in common, and could not be sold by any one tribe, even if it had formerly occupied the lands sold. The United States did not accept this theory. In 1801 the Moravians established a mission to the Delaware Indians on White River, about two

miles east of the City of Anderson. The non-treaty Indians were followers of the Shawnee Prophet, Laluetseeka, the brother of Tecumtha. To punish the Indians who were friendly to the whites, and who favored land sales, they began accusing such Indians of witchcraft; and in 1806 killed three Indians who were so accused, two of whom were Moravian converts. This caused the abandonment of the mission.

28. Battle of Tippecanoe.—In 1808 the Prophet and his followers removed to the mouth of the Tippecanoe River, where they were joined by many others, of different tribes. Some of these Indians committed depredations on white settlers; and Tecumtha openly declared that the lines for the treaties of 1809 should not be surveyed. In 1811 Governor Harrison and the national authorities decided that the Prophet's town must be broken up. In September, 1811, Governor Harrison led the forces he had assembled to a point two miles above Terre Haute, where he built Fort Harrison. On October 28, having been joined by additional troops, bringing his forces to over 1,000 men, of whom about one-fourth were mounted, he moved on up the Wabash. On November 6, they came in sight of the Prophet's town; and after a parley with the Indians it was agreed that they should go into camp overnight at what is now known as the Battle Ground, and that a conference should be held on the next day.

Tecumtha was not there. He had told the Prophet not to risk a battle in his absence, but some of the chiefs insisted on it, and the Prophet told the Indians that he could protect them from the bullets of the white men. At four o'clock in the morning they attempted to surprise the camp, but preparation had been made for this, and a hot fight ensued. Soon after daybreak the Indians were driven off, with heavy loss; but they had fought desperately, and had killed 37 whites and wounded 151, of whom 25 died later. The reputation of the Prophet was destroyed, and the strength of Tecumtha was broken.

29. **The War of 1812.**—In May, 1812, when reports of coming trouble between the United States and Great Britain had reached the Indians, a great council was held on the Mississinewa River, and most of the Indians declared for peace with the United States. There were some attacks on white settlers, however, chiefly by Potawatomis, Kickapoos, and Winnebagos. On April 16 Governor Harrison gave orders for putting the militia in preparation for hostilities, and for building blockhouses on the exposed frontiers of southern Indiana. On June 18 the United States declared war against Great Britain, but it did not begin in Indiana until September. On July 17 the British captured the United States post at Mackinaw. On August 15 the Potawatomis defeated and massacred the retiring garrison at Chicago. On August 16 General Hull surrendered Detroit to the British under General Brock, without resistance. These successes inspired the hostile Indians of Indiana to action.

On September 3 a number of Potawatomis attempted to take Fort Wayne by treachery, but were prevented by the opportune arrival of Major William Oliver and two friendly Indians, with warning of danger. The Indians then attacked the fort, which was successfully defended for seven days, when General Harrison arrived with a large force and ended the siege. On September 3 a war-party of 12 Shawnees attacked the Pigeon Roost settlement in Scott County, and killed 20 people, mostly women and children. On September 4, 600 Indians attacked Fort Harrison, which was commanded by Captain Zachary Taylor, later President of the United States. They succeeded in setting fire to the fort, but Taylor, who had only about a dozen men to defend the fort, succeeded in driving them back.

30. **The Mississinewa Battle.**—The American forces were ready for prompt action. On September 12 Colonel William Russell marched from Vincennes with 1,200 men and relieved Fort Harrison. Other parties went from various

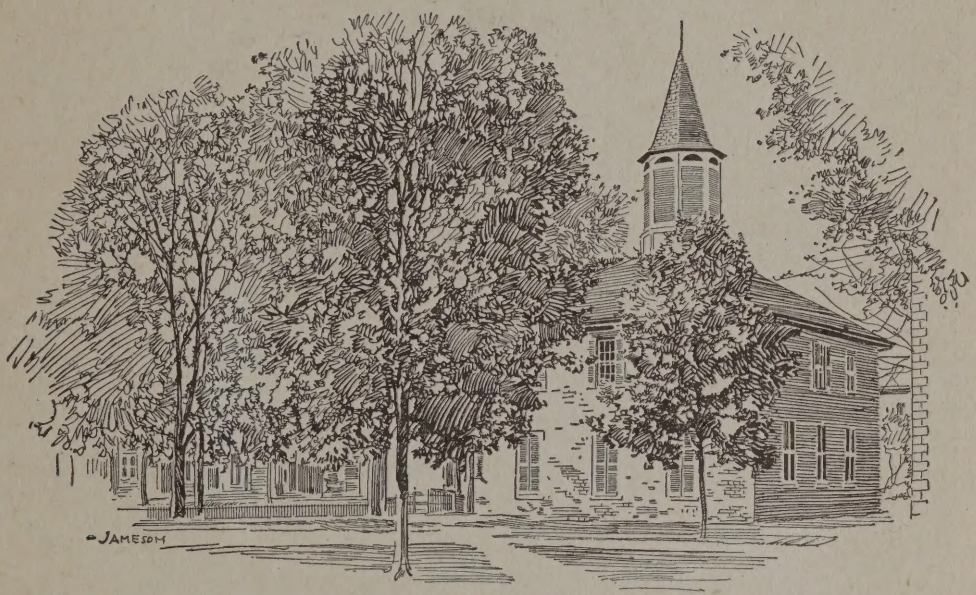
points and destroyed Indian villages, but without any fighting. In November General Hopkins marched up the Wabash as far as the mouth of the Tippecanoe, and destroyed all the Indian villages in that region. In December General Harrison sent Lieutenant-Colonel Campbell from Dayton, Ohio, with 600 men to destroy the towns on the Mississinewa. They burned four villages on the 17th and destroyed a large amount of property without much resistance; but on the morning of the 18th they were attacked by about 300 Indians, and a battle ensued, lasting for about an hour before they were driven off. Lieutenant-Colonel Campbell lost 8 killed and 42 wounded in this fight; but his troops suffered much more from the very cold weather, as 300 of them were rendered unfit for duty by being frost-bitten.

In June, 1813, a party of 137 men under Colonel Joseph Bartholomew marched from Vallonia and destroyed the Delaware towns on the White River, but killed only one Indian. Meanwhile General Harrison was moving against Detroit, and in September forced the British to abandon that city and retire into Canada, where Harrison pursued them. On September 10 Commodore Perry captured the British fleet on Lake Erie, and on October 5 General Harrison defeated the British at the Battle of the Thames. The Indians now realized that their cause was hopeless, and on October 14 they met General Harrison at Detroit and made an armistice until July 8, 1814, when they met Harrison at Fort Greenville and concluded a treaty of peace.

In the Territorial period the necessity of preparation for military defence was realized by everybody, and during the War of 1812 the militia system was made very effective. There were over 4,000 men enrolled, and part of them were on duty all of the time, at the blockhouses and in other services. There were also on regular duty from one to five companies of rangers, who were mounted militiamen paid by the United States. These were sent to any point where danger was feared. The army of General

Harrison was chiefly composed of militia from Kentucky, Ohio, and Indiana.

31. **Close of the Territorial Period.**—After Illinois Territory was cut off in 1809, Vincennes was too far from the centre of Indiana Territory to be a convenient capital.



THE FIRST STATE CAPITOL AT CORYDON, HARRISON COUNTY.

The legislature took up the consideration of a new capital in 1810, but did not agree on one until March 11, 1813, when a law was passed establishing the capital at Corydon from and after May 1, 1813. After the successes of General Harrison's army had removed the fear of the Indians the population of the Territory began to increase rapidly. The people desired to be admitted to the Union as a State, and petitions asking for this were presented to Congress in 1812 and in 1815; but the Territory did not have the 60,000 population required by the Ordinance of 1787 until 1816, when a census showed 63,897. Congress then passed an act to enable the people to form a State government, which was approved on April 19.

This law provided that on May 13 the people should

elect delegates to a constitutional convention, which was to meet on June 10 at Corydon, and adopt a constitution in accordance with the articles of compact of the Ordinance of 1787. Congress also offered five donations of land to

From a photograph copyright by H. J. Friedley.

CONSTITUTIONAL ELM, CORYDON, INDIANA.

be accepted by the convention, as follows: 1, Section 16 of each township of the public lands for the use of the public schools; 2, all of the salt springs in the State for public use as prescribed by the legislature; 3, five per cent of the receipts from the sales of public lands to be used for roads and canals, three per cent of which was to be expended by the State Legislature, and two per cent by the United States; 4, one entire township for a "seminary of learning" or State university; 5, four sections of land for a State capital. The convention met as provided, and in nineteen days adopted a constitution that was acceptable to Congress, which on December 11, 1816, declared Indiana a State of the Union.

CHAPTER IV

THE STATE GOVERNMENT

REFERENCES: **Esarey's** History of Indiana; **Hyman's** Centennial History and Handbook of Indiana; **Dunn's** Indiana (second edition).

OUTSIDE READINGS: **McCulloch's** Men and Measures of Half a Century; **General Lew Wallace's** Autobiography; **Cockrum's** The Underground Railroad; **Foulke's** Life of Oliver P. Morton; **Holliday's** Indianapolis in the Civil War, in Indiana Historical Society's Publications, vol. IV; **Esarey's** Internal Improvements in Early Indiana, in Indiana Historical Society's Publications, vol. V.

32. The Constitution of 1816.—At the time of the admission of Indiana to the Union, the system of government prevailing was based on what is now known as "the short ballot"; that is to say, the people elected comparatively few officers and these chose the remaining officers. This system was followed in the first constitution of Indiana. Of State officers the people elected only the governor, the lieutenant-governor, and the members of the legislature. The legislature elected the secretary of state, treasurer of state, auditor of state, and presiding judges of the circuit courts, and could provide by law, as they saw fit, for the selection of all town and township officers. The judges of the supreme court, and all other officers whose election was not fixed by the constitution, were nominated by the governor and confirmed by the Senate. Of local officers the people elected the sheriff, coroner, recorder, and clerk and associate judges of the circuit courts; but no one could be elected clerk unless he had a certificate from a judge of the supreme court, or a president judge of a circuit court, that he was qualified to perform the duties of the office. The militia elected their own officers.

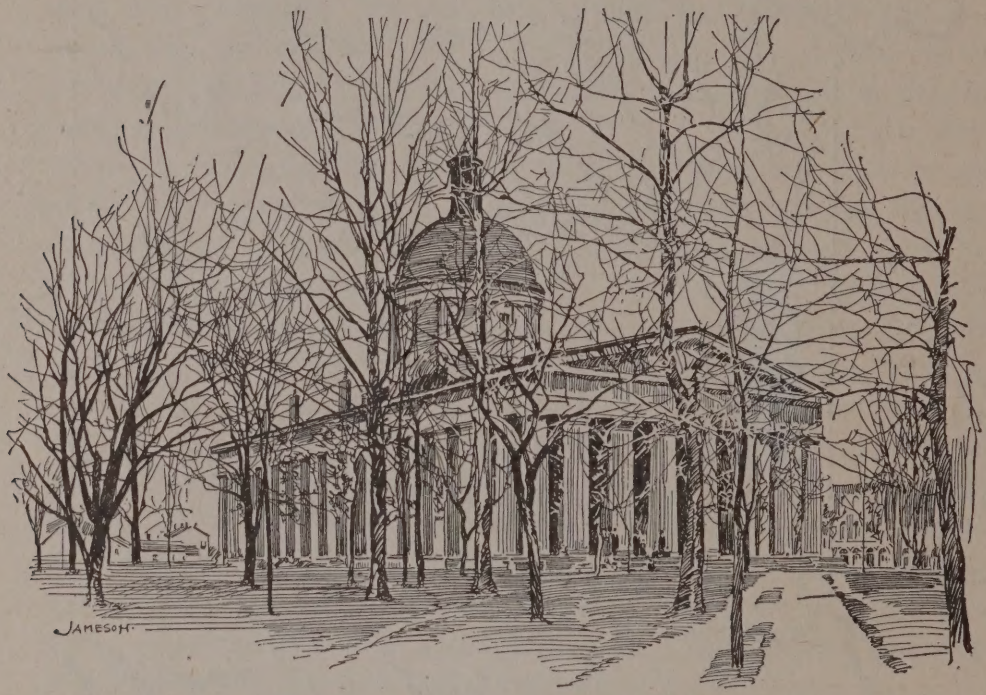
The legislature was given some powers that would be considered extraordinary now. Nobody could be divorced, and no corporation could be created, except by special act of the legislature. The general provisions of the constitution were excellent. All of the great principles of civil and religious liberty were secured. Slavery and involuntary servitude were prohibited. The penal laws were required to be "founded on principles of reformation, and not of vindictive justice." The legislature was required to provide by law for "a general system of education, ascending in a regular gradation from township schools to a State university, wherein tuition shall be gratis, and equally open to all," and was to reserve at least ten per cent of the sales of lots in any new county-seat for a county library. Every twelfth year a vote of the people was to be taken as to whether they desired a convention to amend the constitution. The capital of the State was to remain at Corydon until 1825, and until removed by law. By the provision of the constitutional convention the first State election was held on August 5, 1816; and the first legislature met on November 4, so that the State government was in actual operation before Congress declared the State admitted into the Union.

33. Banking in Indiana.—There had been much trouble in Indiana Territory from worthless paper money; and in 1814 the legislature chartered two banks, one at Vincennes and one at Madison, to furnish the people reliable paper currency. The constitution of 1816 provided that no other private banks should be authorized to issue currency, but that the legislature might establish a State bank, or might adopt either the Vincennes or the Madison bank as a State bank. The legislature adopted the Vincennes bank as the State bank, and it established branches at Brookville, Vevay, and Corydon. The hard times of 1818 and 1819 injured these banks, and their failure was made certain by the refusal of the United States Bank to have any dealings with them, because Indiana refused to

MAP OF INDIANA ABOUT 1816.

allow a branch of the United States Bank in this State. The Madison bank, however, paid all its debts and redeemed its currency.

In January, 1834, the legislature chartered a State bank, of which the State took one-half of the stock. The

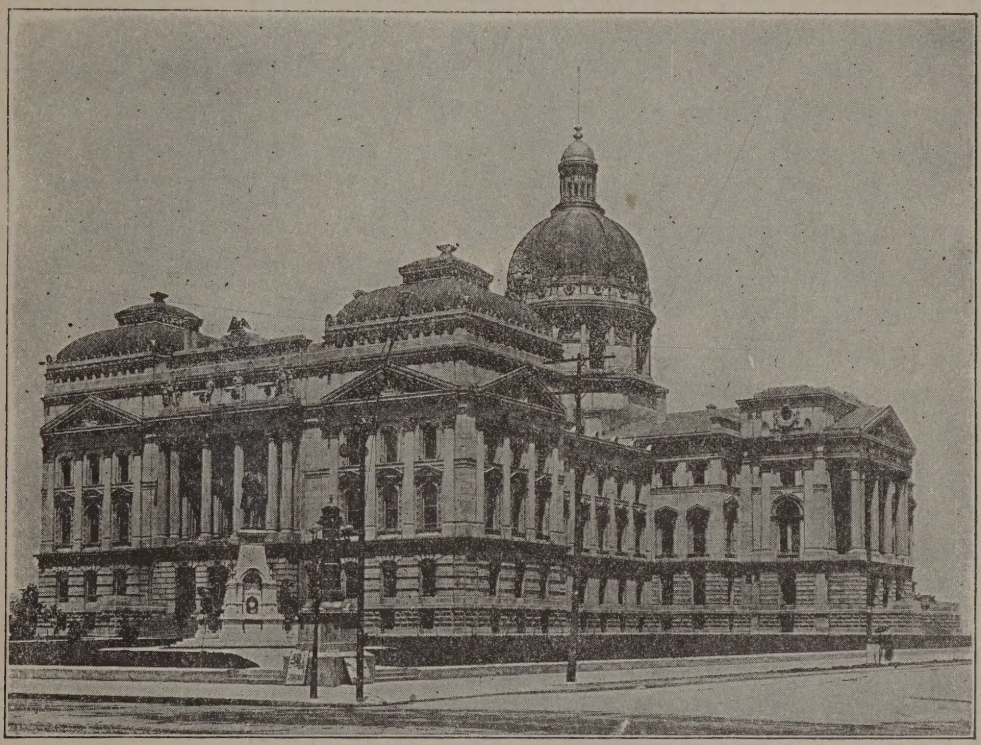


STATE CAPITOL ERECTED IN 1835, INDIANAPOLIS.

State was divided into ten districts and a branch bank was established in each district. This bank furnished the State with a sound paper currency for twenty-five years. Even in the panic of 1837, when it, like all the other banks in the country suspended specie payments, its notes circulated with very slight depreciation. It also made a handsome profit for the State, which formed the chief basis of our present school fund. The service of this bank was very great, for aside from bank-notes there was little money to be had but silver. Hugh McCulloch, an officer of this bank, who was later called to the office of secretary of the treasury by three different Presidents

of the United States, said that he never saw a gold coin in Indiana before 1848, except an occasional one brought in by some foreign immigrant.

But the State bank was in the nature of a monopoly;



PRESENT CAPITOL BUILDING, INDIANAPOLIS.

and the first legislature after the new constitution was adopted, in 1851, passed a "free bank" law, authorizing the issue of circulating notes by private banking companies. These soon flooded the State with worthless paper money, and in 1855 the legislature was glad to charter another State bank, which continued until the national paper currency took the place of State bank currency, at the beginning of the Civil War. Since that time the State banks of Indiana have issued no currency.

34. **The New Capital.**—Not less important to the new State than securing a sufficient supply of money, was

the opening to settlement of the Indian lands, which covered two-thirds of the State in 1816. In 1818 a treaty was made with the several Indian tribes by which they sold to the United States all of the lands south of the Wabash River, except a few reservations. The lands then acquired covered about one-third of the State, and were called "The New Purchase." Settlers soon began moving into these lands. A commission of ten men was appointed to select the four sections of land donated by the United States for a State capital; and on June 9, 1820, they selected the present site, which was approved by the legislature on January 6, 1821. By the same act the new capital was named Indianapolis. In the summer of 1821 the central mile square of the city was laid out by Alexander Ralston and Elias Fordham; and the first sale of lots, lasting one week, was held in October.

The property of the State government was moved from Corydon to Indianapolis in November, 1824, by Samuel Merrill, at a net cost $65.55, and in January, 1825, State government began at the new capital. The legislature met in the Marion County court-house, which had just been completed by the aid of the State; and continued to meet there until the new State-house was completed in 1835. Until that time part of the State offices were located in the court-house and the remainder in rented quarters; this State-house was occupied until 1878, when it was torn down to make place for the present State-house, which was completed and occupied in 1888.

35. **Internal Improvements.**—The third great need of the new State was transportation facilities, and this need was greatly increased when the capital was removed to Indianapolis, and the central part of the State began to be settled. Most of the roads were mere passages cut through the woods, which were almost impassable in wet weather. For moving heavy freight the chief reliance of the people was on the streams. Until about 1850 nearly all of the exports from Indiana were sent out in

flatboats, which took their cargoes to New Orleans. Any stream that would float a flatboat in high water was classed as navigable in the early years of the State, and was so declared to be by the legislature. Moreover, such streams were not included in the United States surveys of public lands, and their beds were not sold by the government. Under the laws work was done on them as "highways," just as on the roads, to keep them clear for boats. Indianapolis was located on White River because it was the navigable stream in the central part of the State, and in early times flatboats came down it from as far up as Randolph County. Unfortunately, the Indiana supreme court has obscured the public rights in navigable streams by construing "navigable" to mean navigable for steamboats.[1] The United States has never recognized this construction of its rights reserved by the "articles of compact" in the Ordinance of 1787, which were preserved by the constitution of 1815.

But flatboating was possible for only a few weeks in the year, and transportation was needed all the year round; so the people turned their attention to canals and improved roads. Canals were proving successful in some of the the Eastern States, and no one could give any good reason why they should not be so in Indiana. Railroads were beginning to develop in the Eastern States, but their operation was more expensive than canal transportation where canals could be built. The first step taken was under an act of Congress of March 2, 1827, granting lands to the State for a canal to furnish navigation between Lake Erie and the Wabash River. The work was not actually started until 1832, but it progressed so rapidly and received such favorable reports that the whole State was convinced of the merits of the Wabash and Erie Canal. The National Road was surveyed through Indiana in 1827, but no work was done on it in Indiana until after 1830, when the government constructed sixteen miles east and twelve miles

[1] Note 54, *Indiana Reports*, p. 471.

west from Indianapolis. The National Road bridge over White River was built in 1834. The people in those parts of the State which this canal and this road did not reach demanded improvements that would help them.

36. The Improvement System Adopted.—In 1836 public opinion was harmonized sufficiently for the adoption of a general internal improvement law. It provided for eight works: (1) A canal through the Whitewater Valley, from Lawrenceburg to Cambridge City, connected by canal or railroad with the Central Canal, for which $1,400,000 was appropriated; (2) the Central Canal, from the Wabash to Indianapolis, and thence to Evansville—appropriation, $3,500,000; (3) an extension of the Wabash and Erie Canal to Terre Haute, with a branch to the Central Canal—appropriation, $1,300,000; (4) a railroad from Madison to Indianapolis and Lafayette—appropriation, $1,300,000; (5) a macadamized turnpike from New Albany to Vincennes —appropriation, $1,150,000; (6) a railroad or a macadamized road from Jeffersonville to Crawfordsville—appropriation, $1,300,000; (7) removal of obstructions from the Wabash River—appropriation, $50,000; (8) a canal from near Fort Wayne to Michigan City.

Fund commissioners were appointed to attend to the finances for this work, and were authorized to borrow $10,000,000 at 6 per cent interest. The people celebrated the passage of the law with great joy; but it was doomed to misfortune. There was delay in commencing work, and the great panic of 1837 came on before it was well under way. By trying to do so much, nothing was finished and put on an earning basis. There was some mismanagement of the funds, and some mismanagement of the work; but it is not probable that even good management would have brought success. In August, 1839, it was realized that the undertaking was hopeless, and the State stopped all work. A part of the work was turned over to creditors, on agreements to finish it; and the State was left with a large debt, and nothing to show for it. The routes selected

were desirable, and within the next twenty years nearly all of them were occupied by railroads built by private companies. If the State had undertaken its first railroad from Jeffersonville to Indianapolis, instead of from Madison; if it had undertaken railroads on other lines instead of canals, and, above all, if it had finished one thing at a time and put it on an earning basis, the system would probably have been a success and a source of revenue to the State.

37. **The Mexican War.**—When war was declared against Mexico, on May 13, 1846, Indiana was wholly unprepared to respond. Militia training had become a mere formality after the War of 1812, and except for one brief call to arms in the Black Hawk War of 1832, there had been no occasion for military service. The State had no militia, no arms, no equipment; but fortunately it had an adjutant-general—David Reynolds—who was equal to the emergency. On May 21 Governor Whitcomb received a requisition for three regiments of volunteers, and on the next day issued the call for them. On June 10 the three regiments were in camp at old Fort Clark, just below Jeffersonville, while twenty-two additional companies were reported in readiness at home. Two regiments were formed from these companies in the next year. When the Indiana troops reached Mexico the First Regiment was put on guard duty in the swampy valley of the Rio Grande. The Second and Third Regiments got into action at Buena Vista, while they were raw and untrained, with inexperienced officers. At Buena Vista, by a confusion of orders, the Second Regiment was ordered to fall back in the face of the enemy. The event got into politics, and the troops were unjustly accused of cowardice. The loss by death to the Indiana troops in this war was 542, but most of these deaths were due to disease and exposure.

38. **Call for a Constitutional Convention.**—For more than thirty years a majority of the people opposed a revision of the constitution of 1815, and then a change of senti-

ment came. It was largely a change of sentiment that affected the whole country. Beginning with New Jersey in 1844, new constitutions were adopted in ten States, including Ohio, Illinois, and Michigan as well as Indiana, within a period of seven years. One of the chief causes of this was that the power of the governor and legislature to appoint and elect other officials created a "political machine." Another was that the legislative control of incorporation had become an obstacle to the welfare of the country, as we had reached the period of railroad development, and it was claimed that the granting of railroad and other important charters had become a matter of bargain and sale. A third cause was that the passage of local and special laws took most of the time of the legislature, and even with annual sessions proper attention was not given to legislative business. In Indiana there was a special cause in the demand for a more effective school system. For these causes, and probably some others, the people voted for a constitutional convention in 1849. The convention met October 7, 1850, with one hundred and fifty delegates, and was in session for eighteen weeks. The new constitution was ratified by the voters in August, 1851, and went into effect November, 1, 1851.

39. The Constitution of 1851.—The new constitution required practically all State and county officials to be elected by the people; and prohibited local and special legislation in all cases where general laws could be made applicable. In these reforms many persons think the convention went too far in making judges elective and in prohibiting special charters for cities and towns. It created a permanent school fund and provided for the election of a superintendent of public instruction. It abolished imprisonment for debt, which had been permissible under the constitution of 1815. It permitted banks of issue, which resulted in the disastrous free bank law mentioned above. It forbade negroes and mulattoes coming into the State; and if any should come it made all contracts with

them void. This provision was replaced in 1881, through the effects of William H. English and others associated with him, by a section prohibiting municipal debt in excess of 2 per cent of the assessed value of the municipality.

It provided a mode of amendment so difficult that there has never been an amendment adopted, as provided, by a "majority of the electors of the State"; though several amendments have been declared to be adopted at special elections, under the legal fiction that the courts could not tell how many electors there were at the time of such elections. The supreme court also put two other constructions on the constitution that the makers never intended. It held that a local tax could not be levied in support of public schools, because the school system was to be "uniform and general"; and if some places had special school taxes, some children would get more education than others.[1] This decision was reversed twenty-seven years later[2] as it should have been, for the same friends of schools that put the provision in the constitution secured the law that was held unconstitutional. In 1855 a prohibitive liquor law was passed, and the supreme court held it unconstitutional, although the people favored prohibition at the time the constitution was adopted. This would have been changed by amendment if the Civil War had not come on, and turned attention to other things. In 1811, on the recommendation of Governor Marshall, the legislature passed a law submitting to the people a new constitution, which made amendments generally conceded to be desirable, but the supreme court held that this was not within "the legislative authority of the State."

40. Slavery Agitation.—During the ten years, 1850–1860, the whole country was excited over the slavery question. The effects of this controversy were much the same in Indiana as elsewhere, except that it was in closer connection with the chief causes of disturbance than most

[1] Lafayette *vs.* Jenners, 10 Ind., p. 70.
[2] Robinson *vs.* Schenk, 102 Ind., p. 307.

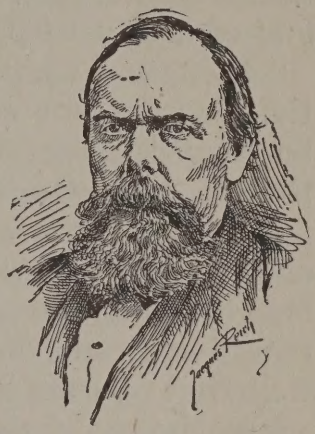
of the other States. The shortest lines of travel from the slave States to Canada were through Ohio and Indiana; and so many runaway slaves disappeared in Indiana that it was said that, "There must be an underground railroad through the State." In fact there were five routes from the Ohio River over which friends of the slaves helped them to escape through Indiana. These routes finally converged in Michigan, and many escaped slaves passed over them on their way to Canada.

There were also unprincipled men who made a practise of kidnapping free negroes in the Northern States, and selling them into slavery in the South. There were several attempts of this kind in Indiana that were frustrated by appeals to the courts on behalf of the negroes sought to be taken; and these caused general indignation. It is also very probable that a number of free negroes were thus taken secretly before any one came to their rescue. The great mass of the Indiana people had no sympathy with slavery, but there were a number of settlers from the Southern States who took the Southern view of it. The relation of these in number is very well shown in the presidential vote of 1860, which was 139,633 for Lincoln, 115,509 for Douglas, 12,294 for Breckenridge, and 5,306 for Bell. Those who took the Southern view of slavery voted for Breckenridge.

41. **The Civil War.**—There were few persons who anticipated that civil war would result from the slavery question; and even after South Carolina had inaugurated the plan of secession in December, 1860, there were nearly four months of effort to reach a peaceful settlement of the controversy before Fort Sumter was fired on, on April 12, 1861, and war was inevitable. When President Lincoln called for 75,000 volunteers, on April 15, 1861, Indiana was as little prepared as at the beginning of the Mexican War. Altogether there were nine or ten militia companies in the State—chiefly the result of a fancy of young men for zouave drill—which went out as the Eleventh Indiana

Regiment. There were a number of Turner societies that practised military drill, from which a German regiment was later formed. The State had not enough arms for a single additional regiment and no ammunition. The National Government was not prepared to furnish either.

But Indiana had in Oliver P. Morton a governor who was a man of action. On the 16th the *Journal* announced: "Governor Morton has sunk party distinctions, and yesterday appointed to the important post of adjutant-general of the State Captain Lewis Wallace of Montgomery County, a prominent Democrat, and widely known for his military zeal and skill." It also stated that recruiting was progressing rapidly. On the 17th the first company went into camp at Camp Morton; and within a week the six regiments asked from Indiana were mustered in and being drilled. But they were without arms. On April 24, on call of Governor Morton, the legislature convened in special session, and voted a war loan of $2,000,000. On May 30 Robert Dale Owen was commissioned to purchase 6,000 rifles and 1,000 carbines. On June 11 the last of the three months' regiments left for the front.



OLIVER P. MORTON.

There was no slacking of this activity while the war continued. By January 1, 1862, Indiana had 60,000 men in the field—53,500 infantry, 4,500 cavalry, and 2,000 artillery. During the war the State furnished a total of 196,363 men for the Union Army, and 784 paid the legal charge for exemption. On this basis Indiana supplied 74.3 per cent of her men fit for military service, by the census of 1860, which was surpassed only by Delaware. The credit to Delaware is 74.8 per cent, but one-tenth of this was in exemption payments, and nearly one-tenth of

the Delaware troops were colored. On the basis of white troops for the three years' service, Indiana sent 57 per cent of her military population of 1860; and this was exceeded only by Kansas, with 59.4 per cent. Kansas was then a frontier State, and her total of troops furnished was less than one-tenth of the Indiana total. Of the Indiana troops 7,243 were killed or mortally wounded in battle, and 19,429 died from other causes, making a death loss of nearly 14 per cent of the troops furnished.

42. Special Services Rendered.—Governor Morton's activities were not confined to raising troops. They must be armed, uniformed, and furnished with ammunition. Robert Dale Owen's commission was extended, and he purchased arms, equipment, blankets, and overcoats to an amount of nearly $900,000. Ammunition could not be bought, and Morton decided to make it. Beginning in rented quarters, in April, 1861, this work proceeded so well that in June it was moved to a new building on the square north of the State-house. The State arsenal was continued until replaced by a government arsenal in 1864. It supplied the Indiana troops and many others with ammunition.

In October, 1861, Governor Morton issued an appeal to the patriotic women of Indiana to furnish underwear, gloves, and other articles not supplied to soldiers by the government, and large contributions were received. Following this came his organization of the General Military Agency and the Indiana Sanitary Commission in 1862, through which the whole population were brought into organized work for the soldiers. In November, 1862, Governor Morton issued an appeal to the people for aid to the families of soldiers, and Soldiers' Aid Societies were formed everywhere. The people vied with one another in their gifts, and the amounts of the collections ran into millions. The county governments of the State paid over $20,000,000 in bounties and relief to soldiers and their families during the war. On account of political com-

plications the legislature of 1863 adjourned without making any appropriations, and Governor Morton took the responsibility of conducting the State government for the next two years; but in the spring of 1865 the legislature levied a tax of three mills on the dollar, and a poll tax of one dollar for the relief of soldiers' families. After the close of the war the State established a Home for Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans at Knightstown. In 1890 the National Government established a National Soldiers' Home at Marion. In 1894 the State established a State Soldiers' Home at Lafayette.

43. **Captain Eads and the Gunboats.**—In addition to all this aid to the Union cause there was a special service rendered by a native of Indiana which is a matter for pride to the State. In 1861 there was a demand for light-draft armored gunboats, for use in streams of the Mississippi Valley, and Captain J. B. Eads was called to Washington for consultation on the subject. On August 5, 1861, bids for seven gunboats were opened, and Eads was not only the lowest bidder, but also agreed to have them ready in sixty-four days, which was much the shortest time proposed. He got the contract, and within two weeks had 4,000 men at work at various points; but his enormous task was not finished on contract time, because the government did not meet its payments on contract time, and Eads had to furnish money as well as materials and labor. But the seven boats were launched within one hundred days, and performed their first great service by reducing Fort Henry, on February 6, 1862. These were the first armored vessels ever built in the United States, and the first to encounter hostile fire on this continent. The *Merrimac* went into action on March 8, 1862.

Eads was next called on for another gunboat larger than these, and in April, 1862, for six gunboats made wholly of iron, with turrets as on the *Monitor*. He built these, and put on one of them machinery for handling a large

cannon by steam-power, by which it could be fired seven times as fast as under the old system. This was the first application of steam to this use. He also built four mortar-boats, and seven armored transports, commonly called "tinclads," because their light armor was proof only against musket-balls. These vessels made possible the opening of the Mississippi and other rivers by the Union Army. It has been estimated that the service of one of his gunboats was equal to that of 5,000 men. Captain Eads afterward built the St. Louis bridge, and made the jetties at the mouth of the Mississippi River.

44. **Treasonable Organizations.**—While the great majority of the people of Indiana were thoroughly loyal, there were organizations known at various times as Knights of the Golden Circle, and Sons of Liberty, which became treasonable, although they were originally organized under a plea of self-protection. Governor Morton kept close watch of them through detectives who were members of the orders, and "played with them as a cat with a mouse"[1] until he was ready to expose them, in the summer of 1864. Five of the leaders were then arrested and convicted of treason by a military court; but the judgment was overruled by the Supreme Court of the United States, on the ground that they should have been tried in an ordinary criminal court.[2] These organizations were never really dangerous, for "there was not an instant in which they were not securely within the grasp of the war governor";[3] but it is probable that Southern leaders were led to believe that there was a large amount of disloyal sentiment in the State, and that this was in part the cause of its invasion.

45. **Morgan's Raid.**—Indiana had been invaded twice in a small way. In 1862 a small party of Confederates from Kentucky crossed the Ohio at Newburg, in Warrick

[1] Foulke's *Life of Morton*, vol. I, p. 374.
[2] *Ex parte* Milligan, 4 Wallace, p. 2.
[3] Foulke's *Life of Morton*, vol. I, p. 374.

County, and after a little plundering escaped across the river before any active resistance could be made. In June, 1863, Captain Thomas H. Hines, with a small force of cavalry, crossed the river at Cannelton, and did some plundering; but they were run down and captured. In July, 1863, General John Morgan, who had been sent by General Bragg to make a raid through Kentucky, violated his orders and crossed the Ohio at Brandenburg, with nearly 2,500 men. He moved rapidly through southern Indiana, looting stores and destroying property unless the owners paid ransom. He took all horses of any value. But if he had any expectation of a sympathetic reception he was soon convinced of his error. There were few soldiers in the State, and Governor Morton called for volunteers. Within two days 20,000 had enlisted at Indianapolis, and twice that number had sprung to arms elsewhere. Morgan was met with armed resistance on all sides. He made his way into Ohio, where most of his force was captured. On July 15 Governor Morton issued a proclamation thanking the militia and volunteers, saying: "This wonderful uprising will exert a marked effect throughout the country, exhibiting, as it does, in the strongest and most favorable light, the military spirit and patriotism of our people."

46. The Spanish-American War.—On April 25, 1898, at 6.15 P. M., President McKinley's call on Indiana was received for four regiments of infantry, two light batteries, and a signal-corps company of the National Guard, for the war with Spain. Governor Mount at once issued his call for the troops to assemble at the State Fair Grounds. At 5 o'clock the next morning the first company arrived from Frankfort, and climbed the fence to get into the rendezvous. Before night all the companies were in camp. Under the President's second call, of May 25, Indiana was asked for one more regiment, a company of engineers, and two colored companies, which were promptly raised. In these organizations there were 7,421 officers and men.

None of these troops were engaged in battle, though the Twenty-seventh Battery was on the firing-line in Porto Rico and about to go into action when news of peace arrived, and hostilities were discontinued. The One Hundred and Sixtieth and One Hundred and Sixty-First Regiments were part of the army of occupation of Cuba.

47. **Present Indiana Militia.**—In January, 1916, the National Guard of Indiana was composed of two regiments, two separate battalions, two separate companies, three batteries, one signal-corps company, one field-hospital company, and one ambulance company, with a total of 2,809 officers and men. The United States has an army post—Fort Benjamin Harrison—near Indianapolis, where a regiment of regulars is stationed and where the annual encampments of the National Guard are held.

CHAPTER V

A CENTURY OF DEVELOPMENT

REFERENCES: **Cottman and Hyman's** Centennial History and Handbook of Indiana; **Esarey's** History of Indiana; **Dunn's** Indiana (second edition); **Conklin's** Young People's History of Indiana; **Moore's** A Century of Indiana; **Boone's** History of Education in Indiana; **Smith's** History of Indiana.

OUTSIDE READINGS: In My Youth (anonymous); **Turpie's** Sketches of My Own Times; also the following papers in the Indiana Historical Society's Publications: **Duncan's** Old Settlers; **Ferguson's** Reminiscences of a Journey to Indianapolis in 1836; **Howe's** Making a Capital in the Wilderness; **Esarey's** Internal Improvements in Early Indiana; **Henry's** Some Elements of Indiana's Population.

48. **Population and Development.**—The immediate cause of the physical, social, and economic development of a new country is the increase of population, and it is not easy to realize now what was the population of Indiana a century ago. In 1800 the population within the present boundaries of the State was about 2,500, or less than half that of the smallest county in the State at present. In 1816 the population had grown to 60,000—about equal to that of Clark, Jefferson, and Switzerland Counties now. If one could imagine all the people removed from the State in those three counties, and their people scattered through the southern one-third of the State, he would have an idea of the small population at that time.

These people had come to Indiana to make homes in the wilderness, and it was no easy task. The central and southern parts of the State were covered by heavy forests, and these had to be removed before crops could be planted. It was something like the work of the coral insects making a reef. Chip by chip, tree after tree, the settlers had to

cut their way into the forests, until they had their clearings made and their cabins built and were ready to begin the work of farming. With all this hard labor there was often lack of food, medicines, and other necessities of life. They had to rely on their own efforts, sometimes almost as much as Robinson Crusoe on his desert island. How they met some of their obstacles is described by Judge Banta as follows:

49. Labor of the Pioneers.—"With his sharp axe the pioneer could not only cut the logs for his cabin and notch them down, but he could make a close-fitting door and supply it with wooden hinges and a neat latch. With axe and auger or 'burning-iron,' from the roots of an oak or ash he could fashion his hames and sled-runners. He could make all his whiffletrees, stock his ploughs, make or half-sole his sled, make an axletree for his wagon if he had one, make a rake, a flax-brake, a harrow, a scythe-snath, a grain-cradle, a pitchfork, a loom, a reel, a winding blades, a wash-board, a stool, a chair, and, at a pinch, a table, a bedstead, a dresser, and a cradle in which to rock the baby. If he was more than ordinarily clever he repaired his own cooperage, and, adding a drawing-knife to his kit of tools, he even went so far as to make his own casks, tub, and buckets. But he usually patronized the cooper and always the blacksmith, the tanner, and the wheelwright. He had little use for the shoemaker, because he made and mended all his own shoes; and less for the fuller and tailor, because his wife spun and wove all the cloth and cut and made all the clothes; and scarcely any at all for the house carpenter, because with his axe he could do about all the carpenter's work the fashion of the times required."

The women had quite as much labor as the men, for in addition to the ordinary housekeeping, cooking, and care of the children, and the spinning, weaving, sewing, and quilting, it fell to them to make lye-hominy, soap, candles, and to collect and preserve the plants that formed a large

MAP OF PRESENT-DAY INDIANA

part of the primitive medical supplies. It is natural that such a life should stimulate ingenuity, originality, and self-reliance, and possibly to it may be due some part of the character of their descendants. Of course, there were some things that a man could not do alone, such as raising a building and harvesting, and for anything of that kind he could always call on his neighbors. A man who would not help his neighbor had no standing in early Indiana.

50. Early Roads.—As all the roads in central and southern Indiana were through the forest, the first thing was to cut the road. Public roads were usually cut 48 feet wide. Trees 18 inches or more in diameter were required to be cut to 12 inches above the ground, and smaller trees to the surface of the ground. Low and swampy places were corduroyed or "crosswayed" by laying small logs close together, crosswise the road, and covering them with dirt. Such roads became very bad in wet weather, and all heavy teaming had to be done in very cold or very dry weather. Years passed before there were any really good roads in the State. The first one was the National Road, on which most of the work done in Indiana was done after 1830. But for the use of flatboats on the streams, the people could not have got their produce to outside markets.

51. The Coming of Railroads.—There was no satisfactory mode of transportation in the interior of the State until the coming of railroads. Railroads had been talked of for several years, but the first track actually laid in Indiana was a mile and a quarter at Shelbyville, which was constructed by the Lawrenceburg and Indianapolis Company in 1834. It was not made like the railroads of to-day. The builders first laid timbers, 6 by 8 inches, and 20 feet long, lengthwise the road, and covered them with earth. On these the cross ties were laid; and on these wooden rails. The road was opened on the Fourth of July, and the report of the event says: "In the course of

the day between six and eight hundred persons were passed upon the road by one car, a distance out and in of two and one-half miles. One horse was found able to draw from forty to fifty persons at the rate of nineteen miles per hour, and this when all the work, both of car and road were new and rough." On the railroads on which locomotives were used, strips of bar iron were fastened on top of the wooden rails.

The first railroad that brought effective relief was the Madison and Indianapolis, which was completed to Indianapolis in 1847. It caused an immediate increase in the value of farm products in central Indiana, and was so prosperous that it stimulated railroad-building throughout the State. In 1850 there were 142 miles of completed road in addition to the 86 miles of the Madison and Indianapolis. In 1860 the mileage had increased to 2,125.75. The Bellefontaine (Cleveland Division of the Big Four) was completed from Indianapolis to Union City in 1852; and the Terre Haute and Indianapolis (Vandalia) and the Indianapolis and Lafayette in the same year. The Lawrenceburg and Indianapolis and the Indiana Central (Indianapolis to Richmond) were completed in 1853, and in September, 1853, the Union Station in Indianapolis was opened. The Peru and Indianapolis was completed in 1854; the Fort Wayne and Chicago in 1856; the Toledo, Wabash and Western and the Ohio and Mississippi in 1857. After the Civil War there was another era of railroad-building. In 1916 there are 7,232 miles of main track in the State, and only two counties, Ohio and Switzerland, are not reached by railroads, and both of them have river transportation.

52. **Electric Railroads.**—The interurban or electric railroads were of much later date. Electricity was first used for city street-car lines in Indiana in 1890, in Lafayette and Indianapolis. On January 1, 1898, the first interurban car in the State ran from Anderson to Alexandria. On January 1, 1900, the first interurban car went over

the Indianapolis and Greenwood line—now the Indianapolis, Columbus, and Southern. On January 4, 1901, the first car entered Indianapolis over the Muncie line. In 1916 there are 2,085 miles of interurban roads in the State, which have caused a material revolution in travel and the transportation of light freight.

53. The Pioneer Schools.—The provisions for education in the Ordinance of 1787 and the constitution of 1815 were much more imposing than the schools that existed under them. They presented ideals which the people hoped to attain, but which were not reached for many years. The first schools of which there is any record or tradition were at Vincennes; one taught by Bishop Flaget in 1792, and the other taught by the Abbé Rivet in 1796. Judge Banta found evidence of a school in Dearborn County in 1802; and one near Charlestown, in Clark's Grant, in 1803. The pioneer settlers were too widely scattered and too poor to maintain schools; and in the earliest period if children received any education they received it at home. As population increased school privileges improved, especially where towns were formed.

Where schools were established, even long after the admission of the State to the Union, they were very rude affairs as compared with the present schools. The schoolhouses were log buildings, as were the houses of the people, heated by open fireplaces. Window-glass was an expensive luxury, and its place was commonly supplied by greased paper, which had the advantage of preventing the pupils from looking out, while it let some light in. Seats and desks were made of puncheons (split logs) made as smooth as possible. Pens were made of quills. The only things that called for money were the books and the teacher, and it was not easy to raise what was needed for them. But boys and girls who desired education usually found some way to learn. Abraham Lincoln was not the only boy in early Indiana who studied by the light of an open fire after his day's work was done.

54. **The Free Schools.**—Although the constitution of 1815 provided for free schools, there were none in the State until after the constitution of 1851 established the Common School Fund. Before that time the funds available for public schools were seldom more than enough to

GRAVE OF NANCY HANKS LINCOLN, MOTHER OF ABRAHAM LINCOLN, LINCOLN CITY, SPENCER COUNTY.

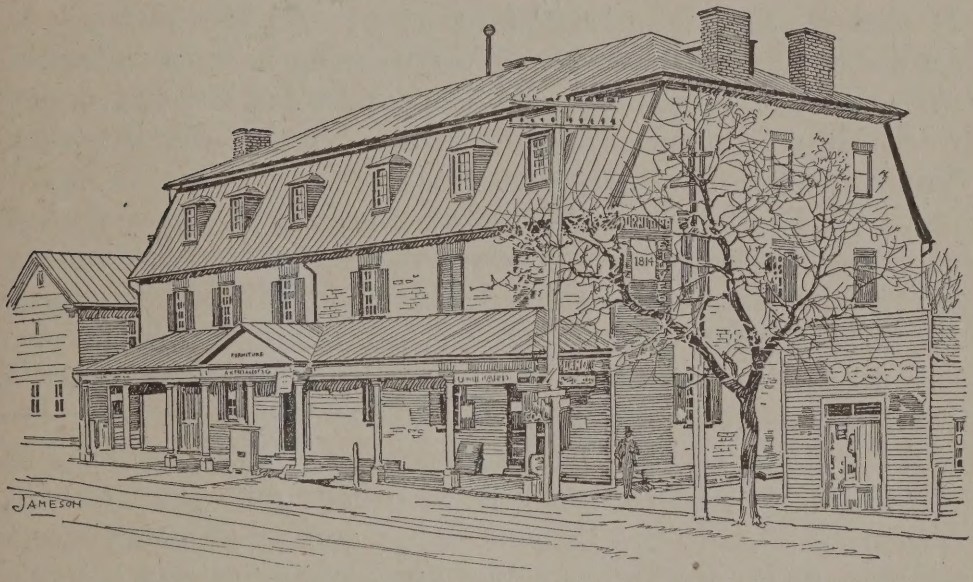
provide for the erection of school buildings; and the common practise was for the school trustees to arrange with some teachers to take the building and admit pupils at a fixed rate; so that while these schools were "public" they were pay schools. There were also many private schools that were very useful in the work of education. A law passed in 1818 provided for county seminaries, which were much like our high schools, and in the course of twenty-five years fifty of these were established, on the same basis as the other schools, with free buildings and paid tuition. In the same period there were established an equal number of private institutions for higher education, variously known as academies, seminaries, and colleges.

But while this system gave opportunity for education

to those who could afford it, there were many children who did not go to school at all. By 1840 the State stood sixteenth in illiteracy of the twenty-six States. Every other Northern State, and three Southern States, ranked higher than Indiana. In 1850 Indiana had dropped to twenty-third in the same list, with nearly one-fifth of her people illiterate. It was the presentation of such facts as these by Caleb Mills and other friends of education that roused the people to action, and caused the change in the constitution in 1851. But the Common School Fund is a permanent fund, and only the interest can be used for school expenses; so that when in 1858 the supreme court decided that special school taxes could not be levied, the schools were put in nearly as bad condition as before, until the people decided to ignore this foolish decision. In 1916 the Common School Fund of Indiana is $11,785,212, but the expenditure for free schools in Indiana in the year 1914–1915 was $22,846,991, or twice as much as the entire permanent fund. Nearly all of this vast amount was raised by taxation. In 1897 a law was passed requiring that all children of school age should go to school at least twelve weeks in each year; and if any child does not have suitable clothing and books, these are provided at public expense.

55. Influence of New Harmony.—In the year 1814 a religious, socialistic community of Germans came to Posey County and founded the town of Harmonie, now New Harmony. They were called Rappites, from their leader Frederick Rapp. They were very industrious, and soon had well-tilled farms, and produced manufactured goods valued at over $200 daily. In 1824 they sold their possessions to Robert Owen of Scotland, and removed to Economy, Pennsylvania. Owen sold half of the Indiana property to William Maclure, of Philadelphia, who joined with him in establishing a new community, which, while it maintained industrial pursuits, was more devoted to intellectual progress.

Among the numerous intelligent people who joined the new community was Joseph Neef, a pupil of Pestalozzi, who brought to the United States the Pestalozzian system of instruction—the basis of our manual training and nature study. The New Harmony community had the first



HOUSE BUILT BY RAPPITES AT NEW HARMONY IN 1822.

free schools in the State. They also had the first kindergarten, the first infant school, the first trade-school, and the first school to offer equal advantages to boys and girls. Their schools affected other schools by their example, and some of the best teachers in the State came from New Harmony. It was such a centre of scientific learning that it was made the headquarters of the United States Geological Survey of the Mississippi Valley. All of the State geological work of Indiana up to 1891 was done by New Harmony men.

56. **The State University.**—In 1806 the Territorial Legislature chartered Vincennes University, which was then intended to become the State university; but after the admission of the State, the legislature, in 1820, estab-

lished the State Seminary at Bloomington, which became Indiana College in 1828, and Indiana University in 1838. The first building was erected in 1824, and the seminary opened with ten boys as students. The financial support of the institution was small, and it was not until 1886 that the number of students exceeded two hundred. It was made coeducational in 1867. As the number of graduates increased, most of them being men of influence in various parts of the State, the support of the university was improved until it became in fact what it was in name. The attendance in 1915 was 2,644.

With all the departments of a university, and with a combined faculty of over 200 members, Indiana University offers every opportunity for education that could be asked. In its beautiful campus of 125 acres are ten large and substantial buildings in which the work of education is conducted. It has a large and well-selected library. Its student body includes representatives of every county in the State, as well as many from other States and foreign countries. Up to the present it has conferred about 6,000 degrees on its graduates. The president of the university is William Lowe Bryan.

57. Indiana State Normal School.—In 1865 the legislature provided for the establishment of a school for the training of teachers for the common schools of the State. On account of donations offered by Terre Haute it was located there; and the school opened January 6, 1870, with thirteen young women and ten young men as students. Its early years were not very encouraging; and in 1888 the original building and its contents, including the library, were destroyed by fire. This misfortune seemed to give it a new life. Terre Haute gave $50,000 for reconstruction, and the State $100,000. Since 1889 four large new buildings have been added, and the school now has a library of 65,000 volumes. In addition to the theoretical education of teachers, the students have in the last year a course of observation and practise, which

gives them actual experience in teaching. The school has had a marked effect in increasing the efficiency of the common schools of the State. For thirty-one years William Woods Parsons has been president of the normal school.

58. **Purdue University.**—In 1862 Congress passed a law donating public lands to States that would establish colleges especially for instruction in agriculture and mechanic arts. Indiana accepted the donation on March 6, 1865, and received 390,000 acres of land, from which was realized $340,000. To secure the location of the college at Lafayette, John Purdue gave $100,000; Tippecanoe County $50,000, and the people of West Lafayette 100 acres of land. The school opened in 1874, and has received support from both State and the United States, as well as numerous gifts from various persons who have appreciated its usefulness. The practical instruction to farmers in its extension work has been of very great benefit in the improvement of agriculture in the State in all its branches; and Purdue is recognized as one of the best engineering schools in the country. It is well supplied with laboratories, greenhouses, library, dairy, and all the desirable accompaniments of such a school. The president is Winthrop Ellsworth Stone.

59. **Religious Influences.**—As a rule, the early settlers of Indiana were of a sober, industrious character, and largely religious. There was little here to attract adventurous or speculative characters except an occasional sale of town lots, and speculative fever of that kind seldom lasted long. The early French settlers were Catholics, and their only church was at Vincennes. The first Protestant churches were organized in Clark's Grant—Baptist in 1798, and Methodist in 1803. The earliest Presbyterian church was organized near Vincennes in 1806; and the first Quaker church at Richmond in 1807. Of these early sects, the Presbyterians and Quakers gave the most attention to schools.

The first great influence of the churches on education

was through the Sunday-schools. At the first convention of the Indiana Sabbath-School Union, in 1827, their purpose, in addition to religious influence, was declared to be "paving the way for common schools, and serving as a substitute till they are generally formed." At that time there were said to be 2,000 children of the State in Sunday-schools, while the remaining 48,000 were "growing up in great ignorance and thus preparing for great wickedness." In these schools the youngest children were taught the alphabet, and then spelling and reading, while the older memorized verses, hymns, and catechisms. From the first the Sunday-schools were furnished with libraries, which supplied most of the reading-matter in many places and most of the juvenile reading everywhere. Books were loaned to the pupils as rewards for good work in the schools. Many persons who were not church-members joined in this work. There were probably 2,000 Sunday-schools in the State in 1850.

The next important influence of the churches was on higher education. In 1826 the Presbyterians arranged with Reverend John Finley Crowe, who had a school at South Hanover, to open a classical school for educating young men for the ministry. The school was opened on January 1, 1827, as Hanover Academy, later Hanover College. Wabash College was opened in 1833 as a non-sectarian Christian college. The Baptists established Franklin College in 1835. The Methodists opened Asbury University (now DePauw) in 1840. The Catholic University of Notre Dame was established in the winter of 1842–1843. The Society of Friends opened Earlham College as a boarding-school in 1847. This was the first coeducational college in the State. Butler College was opened in 1855 as Northwestern Christian University, under the auspices of the Disciples, or Campbellites. It was coeducational from the start. There are many private institutions of learning, of later date, that have contributed to the work of public education.

60. **Public Libraries.**—Although there were provisions for public libraries in the first constitution and in the early laws, there were few established for half a century that were of permanent value. The school law of 1852 provided for township libraries, the books for which were bought by the State. The State expended $273,000 for books, and for a few years everybody in Indiana was well supplied with reading-matter. But no provision was made for new books, or for care of the libraries; and by the close of the Civil War there were few of them in effective service. At his death, William Maclure, of New Harmony, bequeathed $500 to every working men's association that had collected a library of 100 volumes, for the increase of the library. Beginning in 1855, these bequests were received by 144 associations, scattered through 89 of the 92 counties of the State; but, with no provision for their care or increase, they also lasted but a few years.

The present public-library system began in 1899, when, through the efforts of the women's clubs of the State, the legislature created the Public Library Commission to encourage the formation of local libraries and to manage the travelling libraries. At that time there were 52 public libraries in the State. In 1916 there are 190 tax-supported public libraries and 4 supported by endowment or subscription. There are now but seven counties in the State in which there are no public libraries, and in four of these there are movements in progress for the establishment of libraries. Much of the progress made is due to the generosity of Mr. Carnegie. There are 130 public libraries in the State that have Carnegie buildings, besides five branch libraries in Indianapolis, three in Evansville, and two college libraries—DePauw and Earlham. The total of these Carnegie gifts is $2,097,000 for public-library buildings, and $80,000 for college-library buildings.

61. **Manufactures.**—Until the introduction of railroad transportation Indiana was almost exclusively an agri-

cultural State, manufacturing only for home consumption. Aside from the products of sawmills, grist-mills, tanneries, distilleries, and breweries, almost the only manufactures were the individual work of carpenters, blacksmiths, saddlers, and other artisans, and the spinning and weaving of the pioneer women. In 1849 the total manufactured product of the State was valued at $18,725,000. In 1869 it was $100,000,000. In 1909 it was $579,075,000. The central location of the State gives it an advantage for distribution of products that has caused many manufacturing plants to be located here which otherwise would have gone elsewhere.

62. Natural Resources.—The forests of Indiana were largely destroyed to make farms. A large amount of the timber was used for lumber, rails, fire-wood, and other purposes, but probably half of it was burned to get rid of it. In consequence we are now beginning to give attention to reforesting. Coal was mined in a small way in Territorial times; but coal-mining did not become an important industry until after 1870. At present the output is about 20,000,000 tons, and over 20,000 people are engaged in the coal industry. Natural gas was struck in paying quantities in 1886. It caused a great increase in manufacturing industries for a few years; but so much was wasted that the supply is now of comparatively small importance. The first oil-well in Indiana was drilled in 1889, and the industry has extended until now the product exceeds 500,000 barrels annually. Building stone of various kinds is abundant in Indiana, and has been used from the earliest times. Quarrying it has developed into a great industry since the Civil War; and especially so as to the celebrated oolitic limestone. Clays are abundant, and have always been used for brick. The manufacture of tile, pottery, and terra cotta, which reaches a value of $3,000,000 annually, is of much more recent date. The same may be said of a number of other minerals that are found in smaller quantity.

63. **The Name "Hoosier."**—About the year 1830 there was a fad of giving nicknames to the people of different States, such as "Buckeye" to a resident of Ohio, and "Sucker" to a resident of Illinois. At that time the appellation "Hoosier" was conferred on the people of Indiana. Its first known use in print was in the Lawrenceburg *Palladium* of July 30, 1831; but it was first made popular by John Finley's poem, "The Hoosier's Nest," which appeared as a carrier's address of the *Indianapolis Journal*, January 1, 1833. In its earliest use the word was commonly spelled "Hoosher," or sometimes "Hooshier." The common stories about it being derived from "hussar," "husher," "who's here?" "who is yer?" etc., have no foundation in fact. The word "hoosier" was a slang term in common use in the South at the time, used to denote an uncouth rustic. It was probably a corruption of the Cumberland, England, dialect word "hooser," which means something unusually big, or overgrown. Applied to Indiana in jest, the term has been adopted by the people of the State, and is now held with a feeling of pride and affection.

64. **Indiana Literature.**—The people of Indiana take a just pride in the literary men the State has produced, especially when the youth of the State is considered in comparison with the Eastern States. A few years ago the *National Magazine*, published at Boston, took a vote of its readers on the question: "Who is the greatest living author?" Of the thousands of votes cast, only twenty-two authors were voted for; and it so happened that eleven of these were Americans, and eleven were foreigners. Of the eleven Americans voted for, three were natives of Indiana, and the other eight were scattered in other States. The three natives of Indiana were James Whitcomb Riley, General Lew Wallace, and Joaquin Miller. Without enumerating scores of less distinguished Indiana writers, the State can claim a worthy contribution to English literature, in its first century, in the writings of these three men alone.

65. **Social Development.**—It should be remembered that literary production is only one manifestation of intellectual and social development, and that Indiana has produced numbers of men and women who have been prominent in science, art, commerce, and various departments of public life. But individual development is very largely due to individual genius, and is no reliable index of the development of a people. A more convincing evidence is seen in the fact that from the humiliating standing in illiteracy in 1850, Indiana has advanced until, in 1910, no other State east of the Mississippi River had so small a percentage of illiterates as Indiana. This advance was chiefly due to the improvement in public schools; but it was also due in part to the general increase of wealth and the vast improvement of facilities for communication and transportation.

At the same time and due to the same causes, there has come a general social development in all lines. For example, Indiana's system of charities and correction is universally conceded to rank among the best in the United States, both in theory and in practise. The reason is that the system is based on the realization that the treatment of the dependent, defective, and immoral classes which produces the best results from the standpoint of public welfare, is the same as that which is dictated by the highest consideration for the welfare of the individual. On a similar basis are our public efforts for sanitation and health, our regulation of child labor, our laws for the protection of children, and other laws. But most conclusive of the State's general development is the fact that the mass of the people are ready and eager for improvement in all lines—ready to "prove all things; hold fast that which is good."

GOVERNORS OF INDIANA

TERRITORIAL

Years	Name	Native State
1800–1811	William Henry Harrison	Virginia.
1811–1813	John Gibson	Pennsylvania.
1813–1816	Thomas Posey	Virginia.

STATE

Years	Name	Native State
1816–1822	Jonathan Jennings	New Jersey.
Sept.-Dec., 1822	Ratliff Boone	North Carolina.
1822–1825	William Hendricks	Pennsylvania.
1825–1831	James Brown Ray	Kentucky.
1831–1837	Noah Noble	Virginia.
1837–1840	David Wallace	Pennsylvania.
1840–1843	Samuel Bigger	Ohio.
1843–1848	James Whitcomb	Vermont.
1848–1849	Paris Chipman Dunning	North Carolina.
1849–1857	Joseph Albert Wright	Pennsylvania.
1857–1860	Ashbel Parsons Willard	New York.
3 months, 1860	Abram Adams Hammond	Vermont.
2 days, 1861	Henry Smith Lane	Kentucky.
1861–1867	Oliver Hazard Perry Throck Morton	Indiana.
1867–1873	Conrad Baker	Pennsylvania.
1873–1877	Thomas Andrews Hendricks	Ohio.
1877–1881	James Douglas Williams	Ohio.
1881–1885	Albert Gallatin Porter	Indiana.
1885–1889	Isaac Pusey Gray	Pennsylvania.
1889–1891	Alvin Peterson Hovey	Indiana.
1891–1893	Ira Joy Chase	New York.
1893–1897	Claude Matthews	Kentucky.
1897–1901	James Atwell Mount	Indiana.
1901–1905	Winfield Taylor Durbin	Indiana.
1905–1909	James Franklin Hanly	Illinois.
1909–1913	Thomas Riley Marshall	Indiana.
1913–1916	Samuel Moffett Ralston	Ohio.

COUNTIES AND COUNTY-SEATS OF THE STATE OF INDIANA

Counties	Pop. 1910	Organized	No. Twp.	County-seats	Pop. 1910
Adams	21,840	1836	13	Decatur	4,471
Allen	93,386	1824	20	Fort Wayne	63,933
Bartholomew	24,813	1821	14	Columbus	8,813
Benton	12,688	1840	11	Fowler	1,491
Blackford	15,820	1839	4	Hartford City	6,187
Boone	24,673	1830	12	Lebanon	5,474
Brown	7,975	1836	5	Nashville	354
Carroll	17,970	1828	13	Delphi	2,161
Cass	36,368	1829	14	Logansport	19,050
Clark	30,260	1801	12	Jeffersonville	10,412
Clay	32,535	1825	11	Brazil	9,340
Clinton	26,674	1830	14	Frankfort	8,634
Crawford	12,057	1818	9	English	583
Daviess	27,747	1817	10	Washington	7,854
Dearborn	21,396	1803	14	Lawrenceburg	3,930
Decatur	18,793	1822	9	Greensburg	5,420
Dekalb	25,054	1837	14	Auburn	3,919
Delaware	51,414	1827	12	Muncie	24,005
Dubois	19,843	1818	12	Jasper	2,196
Elkhart	49,008	1830	16	Goshen	8,514
Fayette	14,415	1819	9	Connersville	7,738
Floyd	30,293	1819	5	New Albany	20,620
Fountain	20,439	1826	11	Covington	2,069
Franklin	15,335	1811	13	Brookville	2,169
Fulton	16,879	1836	8	Rochester	3,364
Gibson	30,137	1813	10	Princeton	6,448
Grant	51,426	1831	13	Marion	19,359
Greene	36,873	1821	15	Bloomfield	2,069
Hamilton	27,026	1823	9	Noblesville	5,073
Hancock	19,030	1828	9	Greenfield	4,448
Harrison	20,232	1808	13	Corydon	1,703
Hendricks	20,840	1824	12	Danville	1,640
Henry	29,758	1822	13	Newcastle	9,446
Howard	33,177	1844	11	Kokomo	17,010
Huntington	28,982	1834	12	Huntington	10,272
Jackson	24,727	1816	11	Brownstown	1,492
Jasper	13,044	1838	13	Rensselaer	2,393
Jay	24,961	1836	12	Portland	5,130
Jefferson	20,483	1811	10	Madison	6,934
Jennings	14,203	1817	11	Vernon	453
Johnson	20,394	1823	9	Franklin	4,502
Knox	39,183	1790	10	Vincennes	14,895
Kosciusko	27,936	1837	17	Warsaw	4,430
Lagrange	15,148	1832	11	Lagrange	1,772
Lake	82,864	1837	10	Crown Point	2,526

Counties	Pop. 1910	Organized	No. Twp.	County-seats	Pop. 1910
Laporte	45,797	1832	18	Laporte	10,525
Lawrence	30,625	1818	10	Bedford	8,716
Madison	65,224	1823	14	Anderson	22,476
Marion	263,661	1822	9	Indianapolis	233,650
Marshall	24,175	1836	10	Plymouth	3,838
Martin	12,950	1820	10	Shoals	1,015
Miami	29,350	1834	14	Peru	10,910
Monroe	23,426	1818	12	Bloomington	8,838
Montgomery	29,296	1823	11	Crawfordsville	9,371
Morgan	21,182	1822	14	Martinsville	4,529
Newton	10,504	1859	10	Kentland	1,209
Noble	24,009	1836	13	Albion	1,213
Ohio	4,329	1844	4	Rising Sun	1,513
Orange	17,192	1816	10	Paoli	1,278
Owen	14,053	1819	13	Spencer	2,150
Parke	22,214	1821	13	Rockville	1,943
Perry	18,078	1814	7	Cannelton	2,130
Pike	19,684	1817	9	Petersburgh	2,170
Porter	20,540	1836	12	Valparaiso	6,987
Posey	21,670	1814	10	Mt. Vernon	5,563
Pulaski	13,312	1840	12	Winamac	1,607
Putnam	20,520	1822	14	Greencastle	3,790
Randolph	29,013	1818	12	Winchester	4,266
Ripley	19,452	1818	11	Versailles	486
Rush	19,349	1822	12	Rushville	4,925
Scott	8,323	1820	5	Scottsburgh	1,669
Shelby	26,802	1822	14	Shelbyville	9,500
Spencer	20,676	1818	9	Rockport	2,736
Starke	10,567	1850	9	Knox	1,644
St. Joseph	84,312	1830	13	South Bend	53,684
Steuben	14,274	1837	12	Angola	2,610
Sullivan	32,437	1817	9	Sullivan	4,115
Switzerland	9,914	1814	6	Vevay	1,256
Tippecanoe	40,063	1826	13	Lafayette	20,087
Tipton	17,459	1844	6	Tipton	4,075
Union	6,260	1821	6	Liberty	1,338
Vanderburgh	77,438	1818	8	Evansville	69,647
Vermillion	18,865	1824	5	Newport	732
Vigo	87,930	1818	12	Terre Haute	58,157
Wabash	26,926	1835	7	Wabash	8,687
Warren	10,899	1827	12	Williamsport	1,243
Warrick	21,911	1813	10	Boonville	3,934
Washington	17,445	1814	13	Salem	2,283
Wayne	43,757	1811	14	Richmond	22,324
Wells	22,418	1837	9	Bluffton	4,987
White	17,602	1834	11	Monticello	2,168
Whitley	16,892	1839	10	Columbia City	3,448

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